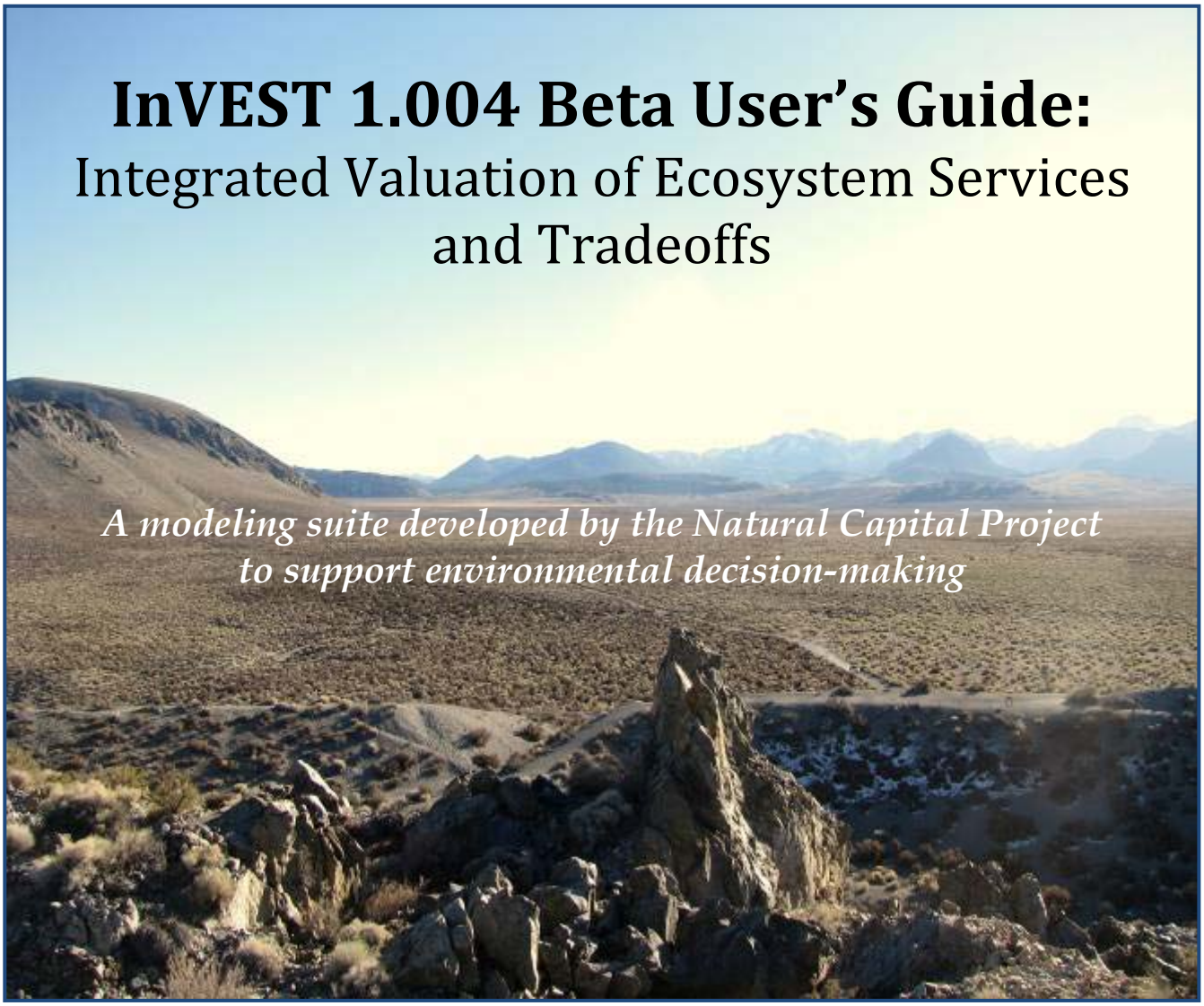
InVEST 1.004 Beta User's Guide:
Integrated Valuation of Ecosystem Services and Tradeoffs



A modeling suite developed by the Natural Capital Project to support environmental decision-making

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THE NEED FOR A NEW TOOL

The Need for a New Tool

Ecosystems, if properly managed, yield a flow of services that are vital to humanity, including the production of goods (e.g., food), life support processes (e.g., water purification), and life fulfilling conditions (e.g., beauty, recreation opportunities), and the conservation of options (e.g., genetic diversity for future use). Despite its importance, this natural capital is poorly understood, scarcely monitored, and—in many cases—undergoing rapid degradation and depletion. To better align ecosystem conservation with economic forces, the Natural Capital Project is developing models that quantify and map the values of ecosystem services. The modeling suite is best suited for analyses of multiple services and multiple objectives. The current "Tier 1" models, which require relatively little data input, can identify areas where investment may enhance human well-being and nature. We are continuing development of the models and will release new, updated versions as they become available.

Who should use InVEST?

InVEST is designed to inform decisions about natural resource management. Decision-makers, from governments to non-profits to corporations, often manage land for multiple uses and inevitably must evaluate trade-offs among these uses; InVEST's multi-service, modular design provides an effective tool for evaluating these trade-offs. For example, government agencies could use InVEST to help determine how to manage lands to provide an optimal mix of benefits to people or to help design permitting and mitigation programs that sustain nature's benefits to society. Conservation organizations could use InVEST to better align their missions to protect biodiversity with activities that improve human livelihoods. Corporations, such as bottling plants, timber companies, and water utilities, could also use InVEST to decide how and where to invest in natural capital to ensure that their supply chains are preserved.

Following are examples of questions InVEST can help answer:

- ✓ Where do ecosystem services originate and where are they consumed?
- ✓ How does a proposed forestry management plan affect timber yields, biodiversity, water quality and recreation?
- ✓ Which parts of a watershed provide the greatest carbon sequestration, biodiversity, and tourism values?
- ✓ Where would reforestation achieve the greatest downstream water quality benefits while maintaining or minimizing losses in water flows?
- ✓ How will climate change and population growth impact ecosystem services and biodiversity?

Introduction to InVEST

The InVEST 1.004 Beta package described in this guide offers models for carbon sequestration, crop pollination, managed timber production, water purification (for nutrients), reservoir hydropower production, and sediment retention for reservoir maintenance. It also includes a biodiversity model so that tradeoffs between biodiversity and ecosystem services can be assessed. Models will be released soon for other services. These will include models for flood mitigation, irrigation, agricultural production, open access harvest of timber and non-timber products, recreation and tourism, and cultural benefits.

InVEST is most effectively used within a decision-making process that starts with a series of stakeholder consultations (illustrated in Figure 1). Through discussion, questions of interest to policy makers, communities, and conservation groups are identified. These questions may concern service delivery on a landscape today and how these services may be affected by new programs, policies, and conditions in the future . For questions regarding the future, stakeholders develop "scenarios" to explore the consequences of expected changes on natural resources. These scenarios typically include a map of future land use and land cover, which is a critical input in all InVEST models.

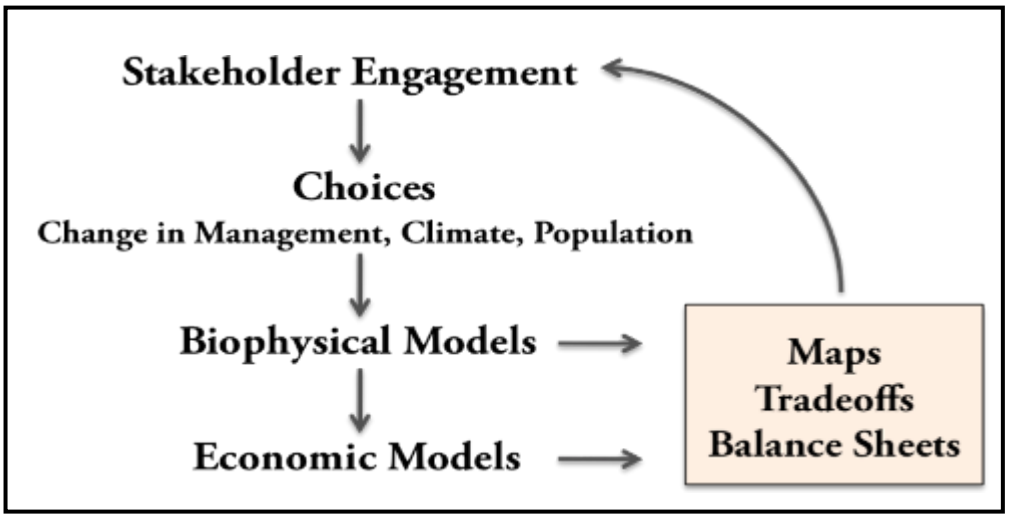


Figure 1*. Schematic of the decision-making process in which InVEST is embedded. Stakeholders create scenarios that are assessed for ecosystem service value by biophysical and economic models that produce several types of outputs.*

Following stakeholder consultations and scenario development, InVEST can estimate the amount and value of ecosystem services that are provided on the *current* landscape or under *future* scenarios. InVEST models are *spatially-explicit*, using maps as information sources and producing maps as outputs. InVEST returns results in either *biophysical terms* (e.g., tons of carbon sequestered) or *economic terms* (e.g., net present value of that sequestered carbon). The spatial resolution of analyses is also flexible, allowing users to address questions at the *local*, *regional* or *global* scale. InVEST results can be shared with the stakeholders and decision-makers who created the scenarios to inform upcoming decisions. Using InVEST in an iterative process, these stakeholders may choose to create new scenarios based on the information revealed by the models until suitable solutions for management action are identified.

InVEST has a **tiered** design. Tier 1 models are theoretically grounded but simple. They are most suitable for areas where few data are available. Tier 1 models can identify ***areas of high or low ecosystem service production and biodiversity across the landscape, and the tradeoffs and synergies among services under current or future conditions.*** While some Tier 1 models give outputs in absolute terms, others return relative indices of importance.

More complex Tier 2 and Tier 3 models are under development for biodiversity and each ecosystem service. Tier 2 and 3 models will provide increasingly precise estimates of ecosystem services and values, which are especially important for establishing contracts for payments for ecosystem services programs or assessing scenarios that address change on a sub-annual basis. For example, scenarios that represent a change in the monthly or seasonal timing of fertilizer application or water extraction in agricultural systems cannot be assessed by Tier 1 models, but will be treated well by Tier 2 and Tier 3 models. It is expected that users will be able to mix and match Tier 1, 2, and 3 models to create the best suite of models given past work, existing data, and the questions of interest. Although the more sophisticated models require substantial data and time to develop, once they are parameterized for a certain location, they will provide the best available science for new decisions.

All of the models in InVEST 1.004 are Tier 1 models. Tier 2 models for several services have been formulated and documented in a book in press with Oxford University Press (due to be published in July 2010). The Natural Capital Project will not develop new Tier 3 models, but rather sees these as the sophisticated, dynamic models usually developed for individual sites or contexts. We will design the Tier 2 software platform as a space where Tier 1, 2 and 3 models can be integrated as appropriate for different applications.

TIER 1 Models	TIER 2 Models	TIER 3 Models
Simplest models; ignore certain real processes	Incorporate more real processes	Most complex; dynamic, process-based models
Least data required	More data required	Most data required
Annual average time step, no temporal dynamics	Daily to monthly time step, some temporal dynamics	Daily to monthly time step, temporal dynamics with feedbacks and thresholds
Appropriate spatial extent ranges from sub-watershed to global	Appropriate spatial extent ranges from parcel to global	Appropriate spatial extent ranges from parcel to global
Low precision estimates best for identifying areas of high & low ecosystem service production	More precise estimates of ecosystem service delivery	More precise estimates of ecosystem service delivery
No ecosystem service interactions	Some ecosystem service interactions	Sophisticated ecosystem service interactions with feedbacks and thresholds
Produce either absolute values or relative indices	Produce absolute values	Produce absolute values

A work in progress

The development of InVEST is an ongoing effort of the Natural Capital Project. The models included in this Beta release are at a different stages of development and testing, however they are all sufficiently developed to be applied. To date, the Beta models have been applied in several sites and decision contexts, including to support: policy and conservation planning in the Willamette Basin USA, private landowners in Hawai'i USA, multi-stakeholder planning in Tanzania, permitting and licensing in Colombia, water fund design in Colombia and Ecuador, and priority setting for international aid in the Amazon Basin. Updated and new models for additional ecosystem services, including for coastal and marine services, will be released as they become available.

InVEST is a freely available, open source product and as such the source code of each model can be inspected and modified by users. InVEST is subject to standard open source license and attribution requirements, which are described and must be agreed to in the installation process., As in other open source projects, it is hoped that users will submit improvements, error fixes, and suggestions to the Natural Capital Project so that improvements can be made to future versions.

This guide

This guide will help you understand the basics of the InVEST models and start using them. The next chapter leads you through the installation process and provides general information about the tool and interface.

The remaining chapters present the ecosystem service models. Each chapter:

- ✓ briefly introduces a service and suggests the possible uses for InVEST results;
- ✓ explains intuitively how the model works, including important simplifications, assumptions, and limitations;
- ✓ describes the data needed to run the model, which is crucial because the meaning and value of InVEST results depend on the input data;
- ✓ provides step-by-step instructions for how to input data and interact with the tool;
- ✓ offers guidance on interpreting InVEST results;
- ✓ includes an appendix of information on relevant data sources and data preparation advice (this section is variable among chapters, and will improve over time from user input).

This guide does not include detailed theoretical discussions of the scientific foundation of each model, which will be published in an upcoming book from Oxford University Press.

GETTING STARTED

Getting Started with InVEST

InVEST tools run as script tools in the ARCGIS ARCTOOLBOX environment. To run InVEST, you must have:

- **ARCGIS 9.2** (service pack 2 or 6) or **ARCGIS 9.3** (service pack 1)
- **ARCINFO level license** to run some of the modules
- **Spatial Analyst extension** installed & activated
- **Python 2.4 or higher**, which is typically installed automatically as part of ARCGIS. The pollination model requires additional python libraries.

Running InVEST does not require Python programming, but it does require basic to intermediate skills in ARCGIS.

A set of sample data is supplied with the models so you can become familiar with the models and how they work. To use InVEST for your context, however, you must compile the data described in the chapter(s) for the model(s) you wish to run and format them as indicated.

Installing the InVEST tool and data on your computer

The program InVEST-Setup.exe contains the InVEST toolbox, scripts, and training data, and is available at the website http://invest.ecoinformatics.org.

- Double-click on InVEST-Setup.exe to install the contents on your computer. The Setup wizard will prompt you to download the contents at the default path: C:\InVEST\. You can change the location, but make sure the pathname does not have spaces or special characters, as this will prevent the model from working properly.

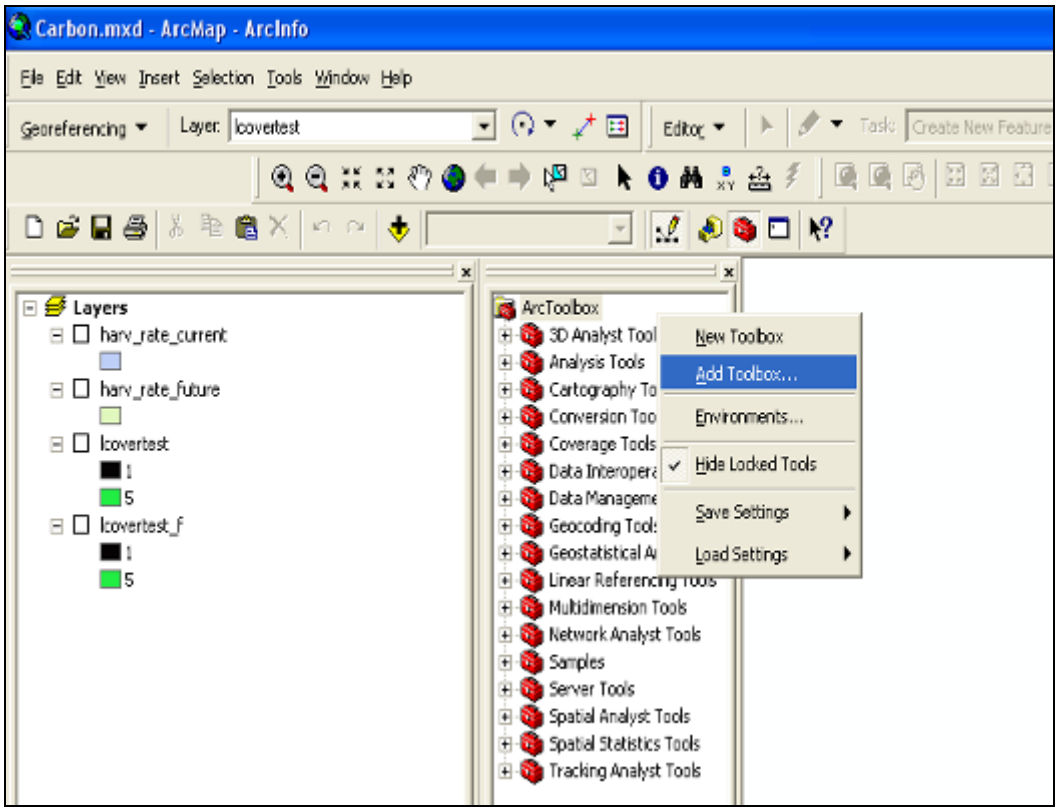
- Using Windows Explorer, take note of the folder structure and files extracted from InVEST-Setup.exe. Within the InVEST folder, you will see the toolbox InVEST.tbx. The python scripts are in the folder \InVEST\python\. There is one script per model, and each ends with a *.py suffix. In addition, you will see folders for Base Data, Biodiversity, Hydropower, Carbon, Pollination, Sedimentation, Water Purification, and Timber. These folders contain sample data. You will also see an ARCMAP file called InVEST.mxd with the InVEST toolbox pre-loaded.

Adding the InVEST toolbox to ArcMap

If you are working with sample data, you may wish to open InVEST.mxd, which has the toolbox already loaded. Follow these steps if you will be working with your data.

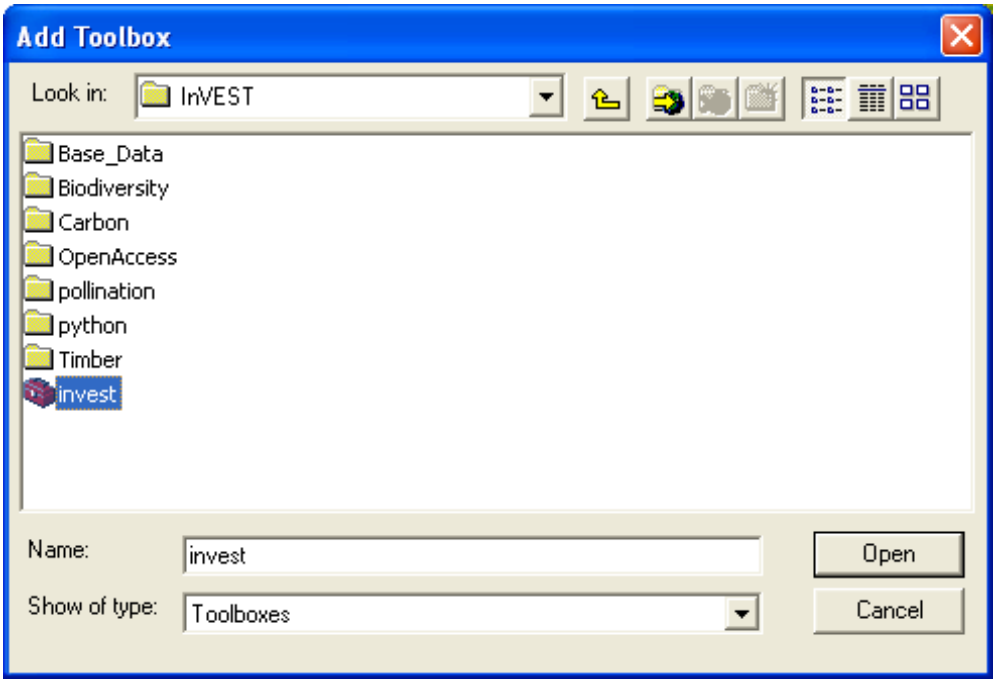
- START ARCMAP. Save as a new mxd file. Ensure that ARCTOOLBOX is open. If not, select the toolbox icon from the standard toolbar.

- Right-click on an empty part of the ARCTOOLBOX window and select ADD TOOLBOX. Or, right click on the top-most ARCTOOLBOX text (see graphic below).



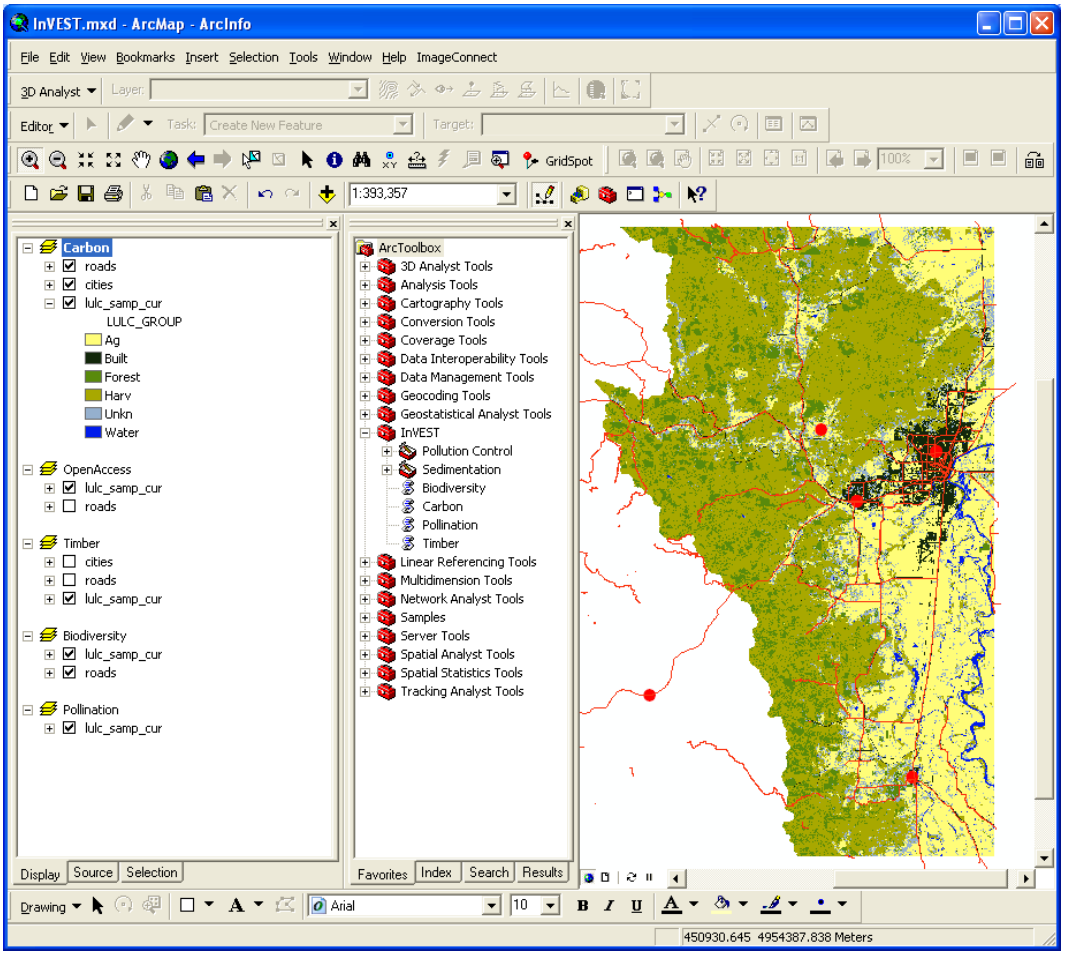
Adding the InVEST toolbox

- Navigate to the location of InVEST.tbx, in the InVEST folder. Select the toolbox and click OPEN. Do not double click on the toolbox icon.



Select InVEST Toolbox

- The INVEST toolbox should appear in ARCTOOLBOX. Click on the plus sign to the left of INVEST to expand it. You will see scripts for each InVEST model.



InVEST Toolbox and tools displayed

Using Sample Data

The InVEST toolbox comes with sample data, which may be helpful for becoming familiar with the models and as a guide for formatting your data. For instance, in preparation for analysis of your data, you may wish to test the models by changing input values in the sample data to see how the outputs respond.

Sample data are found in separate thematic folders in the InVEST folder. For example, the sample datasets for the Pollination model are found in \Invest\pollination\input, and those for the Carbon model in \Invest\carbon\input. When opening the models, you'll notice that default paths point to these sample datasets. You will also notice that the default workspace for each tool is the thematic folder with a name that matches the tool. Once you are working with your data, you will need to create a workspace and input data folders that are structured like the sample data folders, and redirect the tool to access your data.

Formatting Your Data

Before running InVEST, it is necessary to format your data. Although subsequent chapters of this guide describe how to prepare input data for each model, there are several formatting guidelines common to all models:

- Data file names should *not* have spaces (e.g., a raster file should be named 'landuse' rather than 'land use').
- Raster dataset names cannot be longer than 13 characters and the first character cannot be a number.
- Spatial data should be projected in meters, and all input data for a given tool should be in the same projection. If your data is not projected or it is in a projection that is not in meters, InVEST will warn you and in some cases stop running.
- Depending on the resolution (cell size) of your raster data, the model could take a long time to run. To make the tool run faster, enter a desired resolution that is larger than the original resolution. This will speed up the execution, but will reduce the accuracy of your result. It is recommended to initially run models with large cell sizes to increase speed and reduce memory needs. Final results can be produced with finer resolution.
- Results will be calculated on selections in tables and feature classes. If you are setting the model to read layers and tables from your ARCMAP document rather than from the c-drive, make sure to clear any selections unless you wish to run your model on the selection.
- Running the models with the input data files open in another program can cause errors. Ensure that the data files are not in use by another program to prevent data locking.
- As the models are run, it may be necessary to change values in the input tables. This can happen within ARCMAP or in an external program. Depending on the format of tables used (dbf or mdb is recommended) you will need an appropriate software program to edit tables. To edit tables within ARCMAP, you need to start an edit session (from the editor toolbar) and select the workspace (folder or database) that contains your data. After editing you must save your changes and stop the edit session.
- Some models require specific naming guidelines for data files (e.g., Biodiversity model) and field (column) names. Follow these carefully to ensure your dataset is valid.
- Remember to use the sample datasets as a guide to format your data.

Running the models

You are ready to run an InVEST model when you have prepared your data according to the instructions in the relevant chapter and loaded the InVEST toolbox to your ARCMAP document.

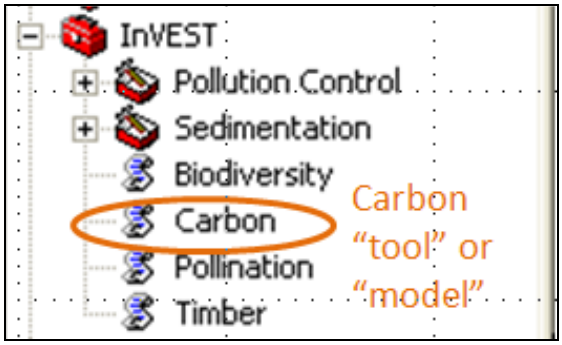
To begin:

- Although not necessary, it's often useful to add your input layers to your ARCMAP document to examine them. Use the ADD DATA button to add input data for a given module.

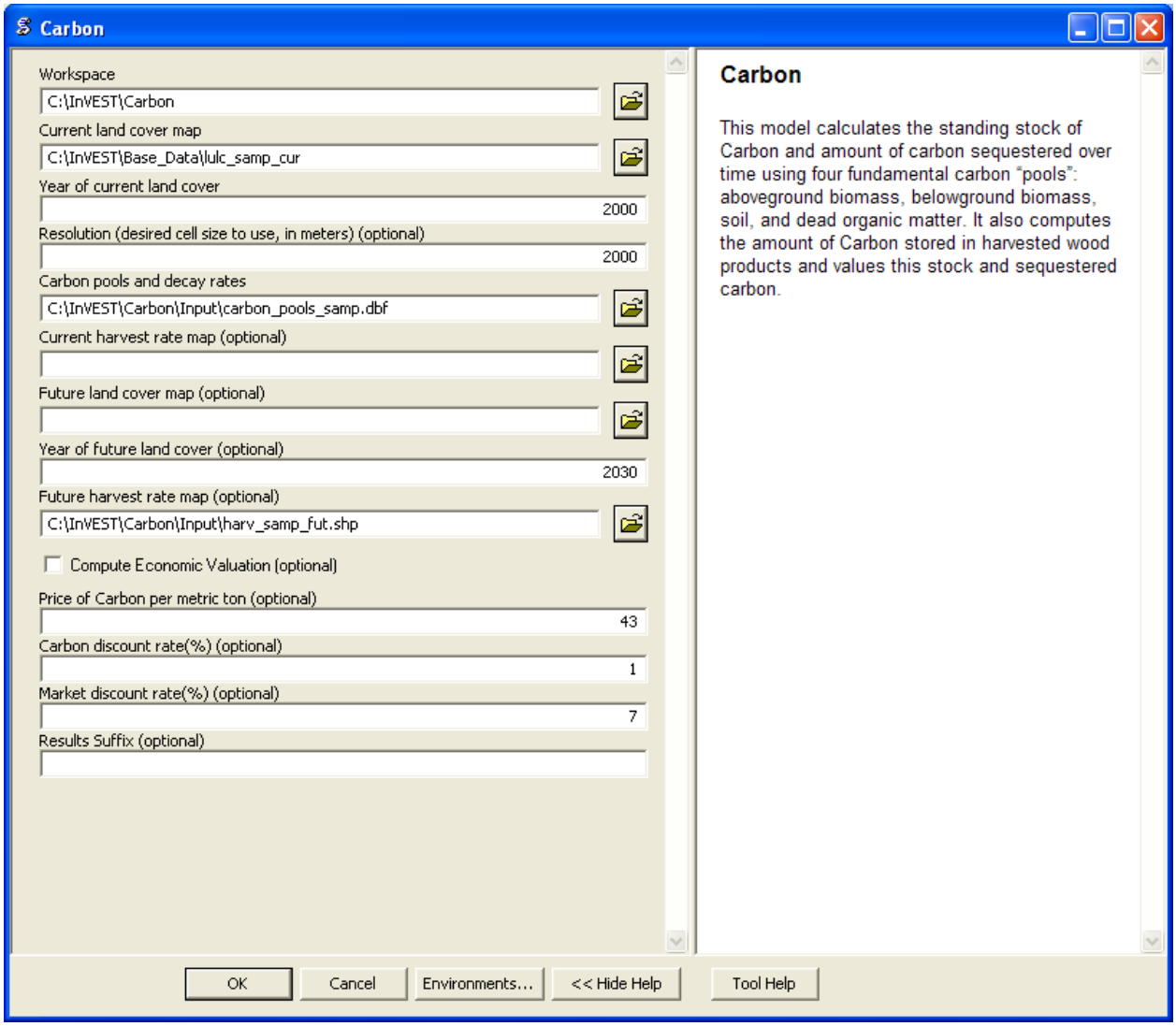
- View the attribute table by right-clicking on the layer and selecting OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE. You can change the symbology of an input layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the TABLE OF CONTENTS and selecting PROPERTIES, then clicking on the SYMBOLOGY tab.

  Note: Some of the models make changes to the data tables as they run. Such models will not run correctly if the tables are added to the map as the data will be locked.

  Double-click the model you wish to run (e.g., Carbon) and complete the required parameters in the dialogue box that appears.

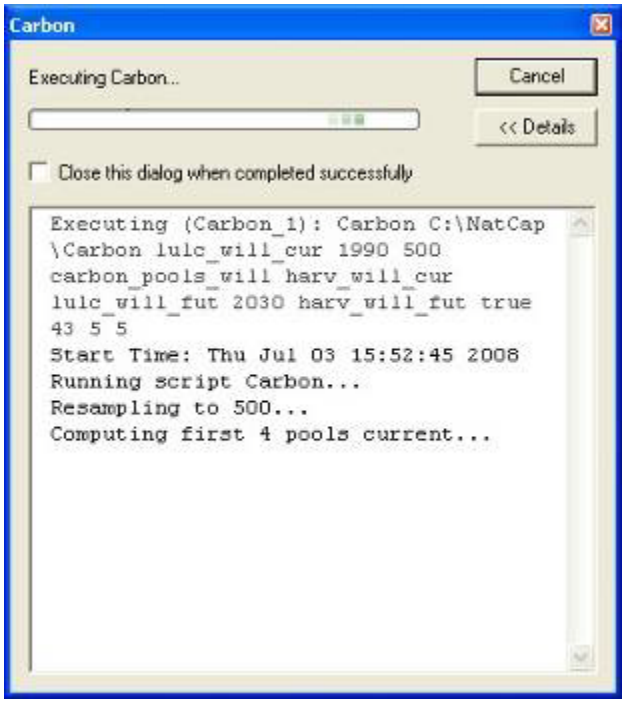


- The Carbon dialog is shown below as an example. Fields for which the entered path leads to a non-existent file will be marked with a red "x" next to the space for that variable. You can run the model with sample data as shown by the default paths, or navigate the paths to your data. Instructions specific for each model are in subsequent chapters.


Carbon
Workspace
C:\InVEST\Carbon
Current land cover map
C:\InVEST\Base_Data\lulc_samp_cur
Year of current land cover
2000
Resolution (desired cell size to use, in meters) (optional)
2000
Carbon pools and decay rates
C:\InVEST\Carbon\Input\carbon_pools_samp.dbf
Current harvest rate map (optional)
Future land cover map (optional)
Year of future land cover (optional)
2030
Future harvest rate map (optional)
C:\InVEST\Carbon\Input\harv_samp_fut.shp
Compute Economic Valuation (optional)
Price of Carbon per metric ton (optional)
43
Carbon discount rate(%) (optional)
1
Market discount rate(%) (optional)
7
Results Suffix (optional)
Carbon
This model calculates the standing stock of Carbon and amount of carbon sequestered over time using four fundamental carbon "pools": aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, soil, and dead organic matter. It also computes the amount of Carbon stored in harvested wood products and values this stock and sequestered carbon.
OK
Cancel
Environments...
<< Hide Help
Tool Help

- Note that each tool has a place to enter a suffix to the output filenames. Adding a unique suffix prevents overwriting files produced in previous iterations. When all required fields are filled in, click the OK button on the interface.

- Processing time will vary depending on the script and the resolution and the extent of the datasets in the analysis. Every model will open a window showing the progress of the script. Be sure to scan the output window for useful messages. Normal progress notes will be printed in black font. Informative messages that may or may not require changes to the data will be indicated in **green font**. Messages in **red font** indicate problems that have caused the model not to run. Read the green and red messages carefully to be aware of potential data problems or to determine why the model did not produce an output.



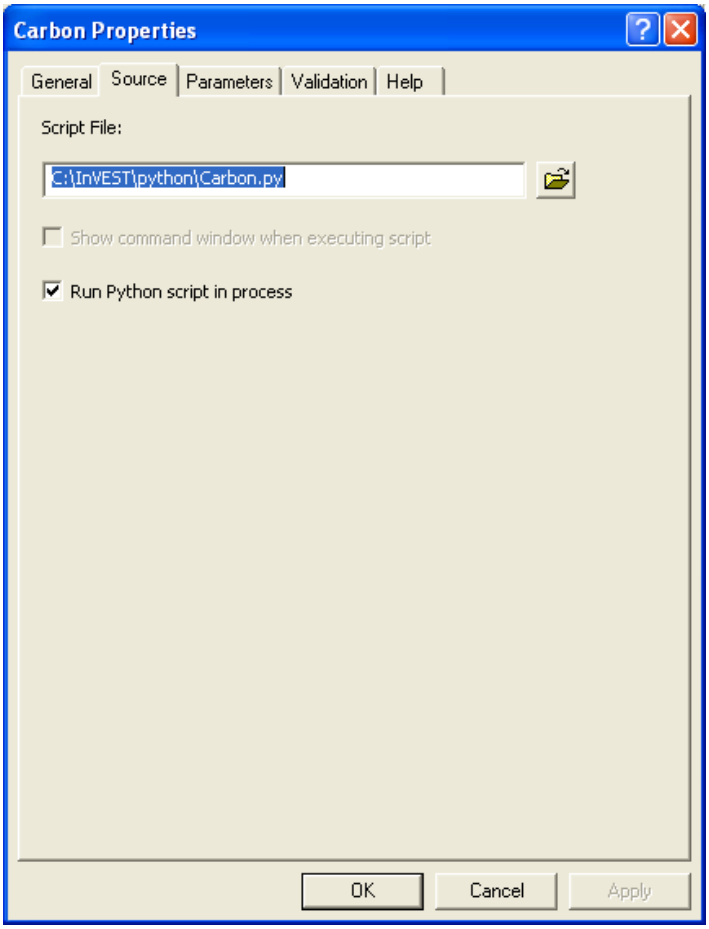
Progress dialog

- The model creates two folders in the workspace you selected: 'intermediate' and 'output.' After your script completes successfully, you can view the results by adding them from the folders to your ARCMAP document using the ADD DATA button. View the attribute table and change SYMBOLOGY, by right-clicking on the layer name in the TABLE OF CONTENTS and selecting PROPERTIES, then clicking on the SYMBOLOGY tab.

Changing default paths in scripts

If you extracted the files from InVEST-Setup.exe to the default location \InVEST\, the INVEST toolbox will work after you load it to ARCMAP. If you extracted the contents of the folder to a different location, it will work as long as you maintain the internal structure of the InVEST folder. If you moved the python scripts out of the InVEST folder, however, the python scripts associated with the InVEST toolbox still need to be correctly referenced. To do this:

- Add the InVEST toolbox to your ARCMAP document as described above.
- Right-click on the model name in the InVEST toolbox and click on PROPERTIES. For example, click on the plus [+] sign to the left of the InVEST toolbox, and then right-click on the Carbon model. The PROPERTIES dialog appears. Select the SOURCE tab from the top. The path to the python script associated with this tool is shown.



Setting source for the script

- Edit this path to point to the location of the python script. It is easiest to click on the folder button at the right of the box to browse to the script and select it.

- Click OK.

Changing default variables

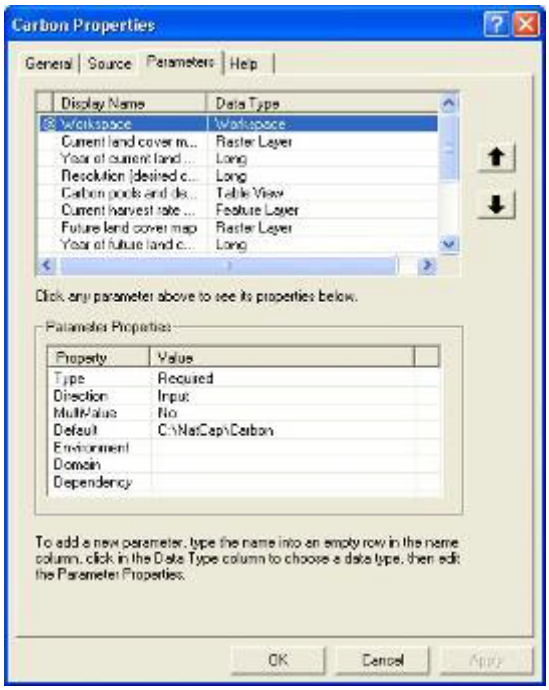
When you double click on an InVEST model such as Carbon or Timber, an interface will appear. These interfaces show default values and path names to sample data (described more fully in the service chapters). You can edit these pathnames to point to data. Another way to change the default path and file names is to:

- Right-click on the model name and click on PROPERTIES in the InVEST toolbox. The dialog below appears.

- Select the PARAMETERS tab at the top to see a list of input parameters for the model. Select an input parameter from the top window, which will set its properties on the lower window, including your desired default values and pathnames.

- Click OK after setting the desired defaults for workspace path, and any other defaults.

Important Note: do not change the order or data type of parameters in the top window, since the program calls these in order. Changes to the order or data type will cause the script to fail.



Setting parameter properties

- Click OK when you have set your desired defaults for workspace path, and any other defaults.

Support Information

Authorized users of InVEST (i.e., those who have obtained the software by registering and receiving a password to download it) have access to limited online support at http://invest.ecoinformatics.org. Users can submit questions, formal error reports, bug fixes, or modified versions of the code to contribute to the next version of the open source product. You must register to receive support and access to the user community.

Several regular training workshops on InVEST may be offered annually, subject to funding and demand. Information on these trainings will be announced on the support page and can be found at the Natural Capital Project website (www.naturalcapitalproject.org). This site is also a good source of general information on InVEST and other activities of the Natural Capital Project.

Model run checklist

Following is a checklist that you should use to ensure that the models run successfully.

- ☐ ArcGIS Version: As stated above not all ArcGIS versions are supported. Most models are tested in ArcGIS 9.2 SP6 and ArcGIS 9.3 SP1. It is advisable to upgrade to one of these versions.
- ☐ Spatial Analyst extension: Most of the models require ArcGIS spatial analyst extension. Ensure that this is installed.
- ☐ Regional and Language options: Some language settings cause errors while running the models. For example settings which use coma (,) for decimals instead of period (.) cause errors in the models. To solve this change the regional settings to English.
- ☐ Folder naming: ArcGIS is strict about folder naming. Avoid spaces and special characters in file and folder names.

Reporting errors

If you experience errors running the models you can get assistance from the discussion list mentioned above. Provide the following details in order to get quick help:

1. The model in which you encountered the error.
2. Your ArcGIS version and service pack.
3. The error text (copy and paste this from the tool dialog, including all the progress report in the tool dialog. Note that the right click does not work in the dialog so use Ctrl+C to copy the error).
4. Indicate whether you were running with sample data or your own data. Ensure you can successfully run with sample data before you try with your own data. This confirms that your system is well setup and ready to run the models.
5. It is preferable to include the parameter file. The models output a parameters file which indicates your input parameters. This can be helpful in troubleshooting.
6. Make a distinction between errors and features missing from the model. If the issue you are facing is related to the model design, give a clear explanation of this and the modeling lead will be able to review and provide support in reasonable time.

Working with the DEM

For the hydrology tools, especially Water Purification: Nutrient Retention and Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation, having a well-prepared digital elevation model (DEM) is critical. It must have no missing data or circular flow paths and should correctly represent the surface water flow patterns over the area of interest in order to get accurate results.

Here are some tips for working with the DEM and creating a hydrologically-correct DEM. Included is information on using built-in ArcMap Spatial Analyst functions as well as ArcHydro(see resources below), an ArcMap data model that has a more complex and comprehensive set of tools for modeling surface water features. This is only intended to be a brief overview of the issues and methods involved in DEM preparation. For more detail, see the Resources section below.

- Use the highest quality, finest resolution DEM that is appropriate for your application. This will reduce the chances of there being sinks and missing data, and will more accurately represent the terrain's surface water flow, providing the amount of detail that is required for making informed decisions at your scale of interest.

- The Hydro_layers directory

  When tools are run that use DEM-derived layers like slope and flow direction, the tool looks for a folder called 'Hydro_layers', located in the same folder as the DEM. If this folder does not exist, or any of the required derived layers within the folder don't exist, the tool will generate them from the input DEM, otherwise it uses the layers that already exist. In general, this is convenient and efficient. However, if you decide to use a different DEM than the one that was used to generate the files in Hydro_layers, and the new DEM is located in the same folder as the old DEM, the tool will not realize that it is different, and will continue to use the old derived layers. So in this case it is necessary to delete the Hydro_layers folder before re-running the tool using the new DEM, so that the derived layers are regenerated.

- Mosaic tiled DEM data

  If you have downloaded DEM data for your area that is in multiple, adjacent tiles, they will need to first be mosaicked together to create a single DEM file. In ArcToolbox, use Data Management -> Raster -> Mosaic to New Raster, entering all of the tiles into the Input Rasters list. Look closely at the output raster to make sure that the values are correct along the edges where the tiles were joined. If they are not, try different values for the Mosaic Method parameter to the Mosaic to New Raster tool.

- Check for missing data

  After getting (and possibly mosaicking) the DEM, make sure that there is no missing data (or 'holes'), represented by NoData cells within the area of interest. If there are NoData cells, they must be assigned values.

  For small holes, one way to do this is to use the ArcGIS Focal Mean function within Raster Calculator (or Conditional -> CON). For example:
  con(isnull([theDEM]), focalmean([theDEM], rectangle, 4, 4), [theDEM])

  Interpolation can also be used, and can work better for larger holes. Convert the DEM to points using Conversion Tools -> From Raster -> Raster to Point, interpolate using Spatial Analyst's Interpolation tools, then use CON to assign interpolated values to the original DEM:
  con(isnull([theDEM]), [interpolated_grid], [theDEM])

  Another possibility is assigning data from a different DEM, if surrounding values are a good match, again using CON:
  con(isnull([theDEM]), [different_DEM], [theDEM])

- Verify the stream network

  If the stream network generated from the DEM does not correctly match reality, 'burning' a correct stream network into the DEM might be necessary. Here are the basic steps for ArcMap:

  1. Create the stream network from the DEM using the Hydrology -> Flow Accumulation tool and compare it to a known correct stream layer. If the generated stream network does not look correct, continue with the following steps.
  2. If starting with a vector stream layer, convert it to a grid that has the same cell size and extent as the DEM.
  3. Assign the stream grid a cell value of 1 where there are streams and 0 elsewhere.
  4. Subtract a multiple of this stream grid from the DEM.

  If using ArcHydro, create the stream network from the DEM using Terrain Preprocessing -> Stream Definition and compare it to a known correct stream layer. If the generated stream network does not look correct, 'burn' the correct stream layer in using the Terrain Preprocessing -> DEM Manipulation -> DEM Reconditioning function.

- Identify sinks in the DEM and fill them

  From the ESRI help on "How Sink works": "A sink is a cell or set of spatially connected cells whose flow direction cannot be assigned one of the eight valid values in a flow direction raster. This can occur when all neighboring cells are higher than the processing cell or when two cells flow into each other, creating a two-cell loop."

  Sinks are usually caused by errors in the DEM, and they can produce an incorrect flow direction raster. Possible by-products of this are areas with circular flow direction (or a 'loop') or a discontinuous flow network. Filling the sinks assigns new values to the anomalous processing cells, such that they are better aligned with their neighbors. But this process may create new sinks, so an iterative process may be required.

  In ArcMap, first identify sinks using ArcMap's Hydrology -> Sink tool. Fill the resulting sinks with Hydrology -> Fill. Do further iterations if there are still sinks that need to be filled.

  In ArcHydro, the corresponding tools are Terrain Preprocessing -> DEM Manipulation -> Sink Evaluation and Fill Sinks.

- Flow direction loops

  If there's a problem in the flow direction raster, such as a loop, the Water Purification and Sedimentation tools may go into an infinite loop and eventually time out, producing this error: "Error: Sub-watershed 1 is taking too long (45 minutes). This probably indicates that there's a flow direction loop."

  Diagnosing and repairing loops is difficult and is beyond the scope of our tools and built-in ArcMap functions. However, a very rough method of determining whether a loop is being encountered is provided in both of the scripts WP_2_Nutrient_Removal.py and

Sediment_1_Soil_Loss.py. In each of these files, look for 3 separate commented-out sections of code beginning with 'Flow direction loop debugging'. Uncomment the subsequent lines (containing references to 'outfile') as directed. The next time the tool is run, it will write information to the file
<Workspace>\Output\wp(or sed)_loop_debug_<current time>_<suffix>.txt.
This can become a very large file, as information is recorded on every cell in the watershed raster, as they are processed by moving along flow paths.

Each line of the debug file has three values: the nutrient or sediment load originating on that cell, the flow direction and the fraction of nutrient or sediment retained by that land use class (as given in the input Biophysical table.) With the debugging lines of code uncommented, run the tool. Then look at the end of the debug file - if a loop was encountered, multiple lines with a particular set of values will be repeated. These values can be used to help identify where the loops occur, by retaining the <Workspace>\Intermediate folder (comment out the lines at the bottom of the code under 'Clean up temporary files' before doing the debug run), adding the Intermediate files 'frac_removed_ext', 'flowdir_ext' and 'loads_ext' to the map, and picking out the cells that have the particular set of values that repeated in the debug file (the CON tool can be used for this purpose.) This might produce many different matching areas, which would then have to be further investigated to single out the problem area.

Once a loop is found, it might help to go back to the DEM and do more sink filling, or use the CON tool similarly to how it is used in the "Check for missing data" section above to assign new values.

- Creating watersheds

To create watersheds in ArcMap, use the Hydrology -> Watershed tool, which requires an input flow direction grid (created from the DEM using the Flow Direction tool) and point data for the locations of your points of interest (which represent watershed outlets, reservoirs, hydropower stations etc), snapped to the nearest stream using the Snap Pour Point tool.

In ArcHydro, there is a more lengthy process, which tends to produce more reliable results than the Watershed tool. Use the Watershed Processing -> Batch Watershed Delineation tool, which requires the creation of a flow direction grid, streams, catchments and point data for the locations of your points of interest, all done within the ArcHydro environment. See the ArcHydro documentation for more information.

After watersheds are generated, verify that they represent the catchments correctly.

- Creating sub-watersheds

If the watersheds of interest are too large (greater than 4000 X 4000 pixels) for the Water Purification and Sediment models, they will need to be broken up into sub-watersheds. See their User's Guide sections for more information, under Data Needs/Sub-watersheds.

In ArcMap the Hydrology -> Watershed tool can be used. In this case, the input point data will represent multiple points along the stream network within the main watershed, such that a sub-watershed will be generated for each.

In ArcHydro, use the Watershed Processing -> Batch Subwatershed Delineation tool, with input point data representing multiple points along the stream network within the main watershed, such that a sub-watershed will be generated for each.

Resources

ArcHydro: http://www.crwr.utexas.edu/giswr/hydro/ArcHOSS/Downloads/index.cfm

For more information on and an alternate method for creating hydrologically correct surfaces, see the ESRI help on "Hydrologically Correct Surfaces (Topo to Raster)".

For more information on sinks, see the ESRI help on "Creating a depressionless DEM".

Much more information and tips for all of these processes can be found by searching the ESRI support website: http://support.esri.com.

BIODIVERSITY: HABITAT QUALITY & RARITY

Summary

Biodiversity is intimately linked to the production of ecosystem services. Patterns in biodiversity are inherently spatial, and as such, can be estimated by analyzing maps of land use and land cover (LULC) in conjunction with threats. InVEST models habitat quality and rarity as proxies for biodiversity, ultimately estimating the extent of habitat and vegetation types across a landscape, and their state of degradation. Habitat quality and rarity are a function of four factors: each threat's relative impact, the relative sensitivity of each habitat type to each threat, the distance between habitats and sources of threats, and the degree to which the land is legally protected. Required inputs include a LULC map, the sensitivity of LULC types to each threat, spatial data on the distribution and intensity of each threat and the location of protected areas. The model assumes that the legal protection of land is effective and that all threats to a landscape are additive.

Introduction

A primary goal of conservation is the protection of biodiversity, including the range of genes, species, populations, habitats, and ecosystems in an area of interest. While some consider biodiversity to be an ecosystem service, here we treat it as an independent attribute of natural systems, with its own intrinsic value (we do NOT monetize biodiversity in this model). Natural resource managers, corporations and conservation organizations are becoming increasingly interested in understanding how and where biodiversity and ecosystem services align in space and how management actions affect both.

Evidence from many sources builds an overwhelming picture of pervasive biodiversity decline worldwide (e.g., Vitousek et al. 1997; Wilcove et al 1998; Czech et. al 2000). This evidence has prompted a wide-ranging response from both governments and civil society. Through the Rio Convention on Biodiversity, 189 nations have committed themselves to preserving the biodiversity within their borders. Yet, there is scant research on the overlap between opportunities to protect biodiversity and to sustain the ecosystem services so critical to these countries' economic well-being. This is precisely the type of challenge that InVEST has been designed to address.

For managers to understand the patterns of distribution and richness across a landscape, individually and in aggregate, it is necessary to map the range or occurrences of elements (e.g.

species, communities, habitats). The degree to which current land use and management affects the persistence of these elements must also be assessed in order to design appropriate conservation strategies and encourage resource management that maximizes biodiversity in those areas.

There are a variety of approaches to identifying priorities for conservation with various trade-offs among them. Each of these approaches focuses on different facets of biodiversity attributes and dynamics, including habitat or vegetation-based representation (i.e., a coarse filter), maximizing the number of species "covered" by a network of conserved sites for a given conservation budget (Ando et al. 1998), identifying patterns of richness and endemism (CI hotspots), and conserving ecological processes. There is also a hybrid coarse-fine filter approach which selectively includes "fine-filter" elements such as species with unique habitat requirements who may not be adequately protected using a coarse-filter approach only (TNC and WWF ecoregional planning). The InVEST Habitat Quality and Rarity model is most relevant to "coarse filter", or habitat-based approaches.

The reasons for modeling biodiversity alongside ecosystem services are simple and powerful. Doing so allows us to compare spatial patterns of biodiversity and ecosystem services, and to identify win-win areas (i.e., areas where conservation can benefit both natural systems and human economies) as well as areas where these goals are not aligned. Further, it allows us to analyze trade-offs between biodiversity and ecosystem services across differing scenarios of future land use change. Land use/land cover (LULC) patterns that generate greater ecosystem service production may not always lead to greater biodiversity conservation (Nelson et al. 2008), and modeling future options today can help identify and avoid tradeoffs.

The Model

The InVEST biodiversity model (Tier 1) combines information on LULC and threats to biodiversity to produce habitat quality and rarity maps. This approach generates two key sets of information that are useful in making an initial assessment of conservation needs: the relative extent and degradation of different types of habitat types in a region and changes across time. This approach further allows rapid assessment of the status of and change in a proxy for more detailed measures of biodiversity status. If habitat changes are taken as representative of genetic, species, or ecosystem changes, the user is assuming that areas with high quality habitat will better support all levels of biodiversity and that decreases in habitat extent and quality over time means a decline in biodiversity persistence, resilience, breadth and depth in the area of decline.

The habitat rarity model indicates the extent and pattern of natural land cover types on the current or a potential future landscape vis-à-vis the extent of the same natural land cover types in some baseline period. Rarity maps allow users to create a map of the rarest habitats on the landscape relative to the baseline chosen by the user to represent the mix of habitats on the landscape that is most appropriate for the study area's native biodiversity.

The model requires basic data that are available virtually everywhere in the world, making it useful in areas for which species distribution data are poor or lacking altogether. Extensive occurrence (presence/absence) data may be available in many places for current conditions. However, modeling the change in occurrence, persistence, or vulnerability of multiple species under future

conditions is often impossible or infeasible. While a habitat approach leaves out the detailed species occurrence data available for current conditions, several of its components represent advances in functionality over many existing biodiversity conservation planning tools. The most significant is the ability to characterize the *sensitivity of habitats types to various threats.* Not all habitats are affected by all threats in the same way, and the InVEST model accounts for this variability. Further, the model allows users to estimate the relative impact of one threat over another so that threats that are more damaging to biodiversity persistence on the landscape can be represented as such. For example, grassland could be particularly sensitive to threats generated by urban areas yet moderately sensitive to threats generated by roads. In addition, the distance over which a threat will degrade natural systems can be incorporated into the model.

Model assessment of the current landscape can be used as an input to a coarse-filter assessment of current conservation needs and opportunities. Model assessment of potential LULC futures can be used to measure potential changes in habitat extent, quality, and rarity on a landscape and conservation needs and opportunities in the future.

How it works

Habitat quality

We define habitat as ‘‘the resources and conditions present in an area that produce occupancy—including survival and reproduction—by a given organism (Hall et al. 1997:175).” Habitat quality refers to the ability of the environment to provide conditions appropriate for individual and population persistence, and is considered a continuous variable in the model, ranging from low to medium to high, based on resources available for survival, reproduction, and population persistence, respectively (Hall et al 1997). Habitat with high quality is relatively intact and has the structure and function within the range of historic variability. Habitat quality depends on a habitat’s proximity to human land uses and the intensity of these land uses. Generally, habitat quality is degraded as the intensity of nearby land-use increases (Nelleman 2001, McKinney 2002, Forman et al. 2003).

The model runs using raster data, or a gridded map of square cells. Each cell in the raster is assigned a LULC type, which can be a natural (unmanaged) cover or a managed cover. LULC types can be given at any level of classification detail. For example, grassland is a broad LULC definition that can be subdivided into pasture, restored prairie, and residential lawn types to provide much more LULC classification detail. While the user can submit up to 3 raster maps of LULC, one each for a baseline, current, and future period, at a minimum the current LULC raster map has to be submitted.

The user defines which LULC types can provide habitat for the conservation objective (e.g., if forest breeding birds are the conservation objective then forests are habitat and non-forest covers are not habitat). Let H_j indicate the habitat suitability of LULC type j.

Which LULC types should be considered habitat? If considering biodiversity generally or if data on specific biodiversity-habitat relationships are lacking, you can take a simple binary approach to assigning habitat to LULC types. A classic example would be to follow an island-ocean model and

assume that the managed land matrix surrounding remnant patches of unmanaged land is unusable from the standpoint of species (e.g., MacArthur and Wilson 1967). In this case a 0 would be assigned to managed LULC types in the matrix (i.e., non-habitat) and a 1 to unmanaged types (i.e., habitat). Under this modeling scheme habitat quality scores are not a function of habitat importance, rarity, or suitability; all habitat types are treated equally. Model inputs are assumed to not be specific to any particular species or species guild, but rather apply to biodiversity generally.

More recent research suggests that the matrix of managed land that surrounds patches of unmanaged land can significantly influence the "effective isolation" of habitat patches, rendering them more or less isolated than simple distance or classic models would indicate (Ricketts 2001, Prugh et al. 2008). Modification of the matrix may provide opportunities for reducing patch isolation and thus the extinction risk of populations in fragmented landscapes (Franklin and Lindenmayer 2009). To model this, a relative habitat suitability score can be assigned to a LULC type ranging from 0 to 1 where 1 indicates the highest habitat suitability. A ranking of less than 1 indicates habitat where a species or functional group may have lower survivability. Applying this second approach greatly expands the definition of habitat from the simple and often artificial binary approach (e.g., “natural” versus “unnatural”) to include a broad spectrum of both managed and unmanaged LULC types. By using a continuum of habitat suitability across LULC types, the user can assess the importance of land use management on habitat quality holistically or consider the potential importance of “working” (or managed) landscapes.

If a continuum of habitat suitability is relevant, weights with a roster of LULC on a landscape must be applied in reference to a particular species guild of group. For example, grassland songbirds may prefer a native prairie habitat above all other habitat types (the habitat score for the LULC prairie (H_{prarie}) equals 1), but will also make use of a managed hayfield or pasture in a pinch (the habitat score for the LULC hayfield ($H_{hayfield}$) and pasture ($H_{pasture}$) equals 0.5). However, mammals such as porcupines will find prairie unsuitable for breeding and feeding. Therefore, if specific data on species group-habitat relationships are used, the model output refers to habitat extent and quality for the species or group in the modeled set only.

Besides a map of LULC and data that relates LULC to habitat suitability, the model also requires data on habitat threat density and its affects on habitat quality. In general, we consider human modified LULC types that cause habitat fragmentation, edge, and degradation in neighboring habitat threats. For example, the conversion of a habitat LULC to non-habitat LULC reduces the size and continuity of neighboring habitat patches. Edge effects refer to changes in the biological and physical conditions that occur at a patch boundary and within adjacent patches. For example, adjacent degraded non-habitat LULC parcels impose “edge effects” on habitat parcels and can have negative impacts within habitat parcels by, for example, facilitating entry of predators, competitors, invasive species, or toxic chemicals and other pollutants. Another example: in many developing countries roads are a threat to forest habitat quality on the landscape because of the access they provide to timber and non-timber forest harvesters.

Each threat source needs to be mapped on a raster grid. A grid cell value on a threat’s map can either indicate intensity of the threat within the cell (e.g., road length in a grid cell or cultivated area in a gird cell) or simply a 1 if the grid cell contains the threat in a road or crop field cover and

0 otherwise. Let o_{ry} indicate threat r's "score" in grid cell y where $r = 1, 2, \ldots, R$ indexes all modeled degradation sources.

All mapped threats should be measured in the same scale and metric. For example, if one threat is measured in density per grid cell then all degradation sources should be measured in density per grid cell where density is measured with the same metric unit (e.g., km and km^2). Or if one threat is measured with presence/absence (1/0) on its map then all threats should be mapped with the presence/absence scale.

The impact of threats on habitat in a grid cell is mediated by four factors.

1. The first factor is the relative impact of each threat. Some threats may be more damaging to habitat, all else equal, and a relative impact score accounts for this (see Table 1 for a list of possible threats). For instance, urban areas may be considered to be twice as degrading to any nearby habitats as agricultural areas. A degradation source's weight, w_r, indicates the relative destructiveness of a degradation source to all habitats. The weight w_r can take on any value from 0 to 1. For example, if urban area has a threat weight of 1 and the threat weight of roads is set equal to 0.5 then the urban area causes twice the disturbance, all else equal, to all habitat types. . To reiterate, if we have assigned species group-specific habitat suitability scores to each LULC then the threats and their weights should be specific to the modeled species group.

2. The second mitigating factor is the distance between habitat and the threat source and the impact of the threat across space. In general, the impact of a threat on habitat decreases as distance from the degradation source increases, so that grid cells that are more proximate to threats will experience higher impacts. For example, assume a grid cell is 2 km from the edge of an urban area and 0.5 km from a highway. The impact of these two threat sources on habitat in the grid cell will partly depend on how quickly they decrease, or decay, over space. The user can choose either a linear or exponential distance-decay function to describe how a threat decays over space. The impact of threat r that originates in grid cell y, r_y, on habitat in grid cell x is given by i_{rxy} and is represented by the following equations,

$$i_{rxy} = 1 - \left(\frac{d_{xy}}{d_{r\max}} \right) \text{ if linear, or} \qquad (1)$$

$$i_{rxy} = \exp\left(-\left(\frac{2.99}{d_{r\max}} \right) d_{xy} \right) \text{ if exponential} \qquad (2)$$

where d_{xy} is the linear distance between grid cells x and y and $d_{r\max}$ is the maximum effective distance of threat r's reach across space. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the distance-decay rate for a threat based on the maximum effective distance of the threat (linear and exponential). For example, if the user selects an exponential decline and the maximum impact distance of a threat is set at 1 km, the impact of the threat on a grid cell's habitat will decline by ~ 50% when the grid cell is 200 m from r's source. If $i_{rxy} > 0$ then grid cell x is in degradation source r_y's disturbance zone. (If the expontential funcion is used to describe the impact of degradation source r on the landscape then the model ignores values of i_{rxy} that are very close to 0 in order to expedite the modeling process.) To reiterate, if we have assigned species group-specific habitat suitability scores

to each LULC then threat impact over spece should be specific to the modeled species group.

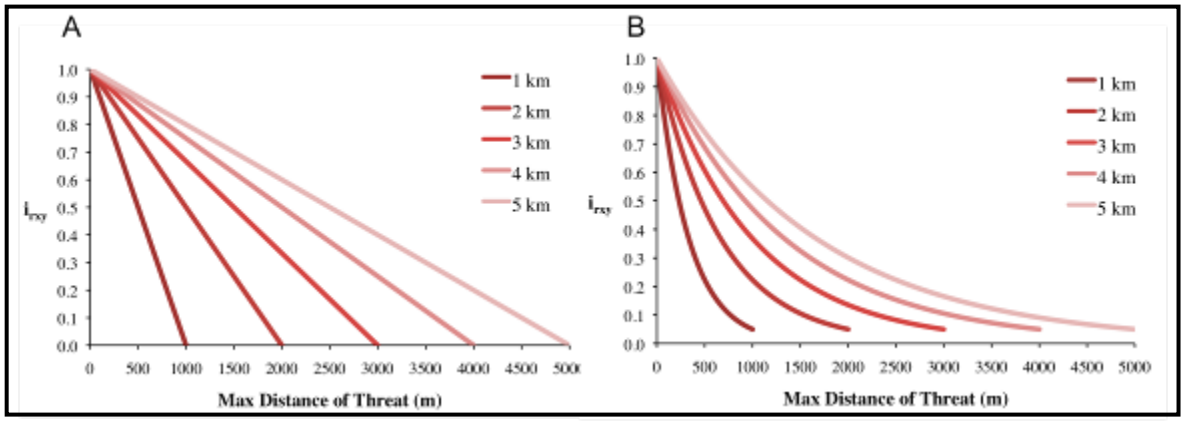


Figure 1. *An example of the relationship between the distance-decay rate of a threat and the maximum effective distance of a threat under A) linear and B) exponential.*

3. The third landscape factor that may mitigate the impact of threats on habitat is the level of legal / institutional / social / physical protection from disturbance in each cell. Is the grid cell in a formal protected area? Or is it inaccessible to people due to high elevations? Or is the grid cell open to harvest and other forms of disturbance? The model assumes that the more legal / institutional / social / physical protection from degradation a cell has, the less it will be affected by nearby threats, no matter the type of threat. Let $\beta_x \in [0,1]$ indicate the level of accessibility in grid cell *x* where 1 indicates complete accessibility. As β_x decreases the impact that all threats will have in grid cell *x* decreases linearly. It is important to note that while legal / institutional / social / physical protections often do diminish the impact of extractive activities in habitat such as hunting or fishing, it is unlikely to protect against other sources of degradation such as air or water pollution, habitat fragmentation, or edge effects. If the threats considered are not mitigated by legal / institutional / social / physical properties then you should ignore this input or set $\beta_x = 1$ for all grid cells *x*. . To reiterate, if we have assigned species group-specific habitat suitability scores to each LULC then the threats mitigation weights should be specific to the modeled species group.

Table 1. Possible degradation sources based on the causes of endangerment for American species classified as threatened or endangered by the US Fish and Wildlife Service.

Threat	Number of species endangered by threat, as indicated by Lowe et al. (1990), Moseley (1992), and Beacham (1994)	Estimated number of species endangered by threat, derived by extrapolation of 5% sample from *Federal Register*
Interactions with non-native species	305	340
Urbanization	275	340
Agriculture	224	260
Outdoor recreation and tourism development	186	200
Domestic livestock and ranching activities	182	140
Reservoirs and other running water diversions	161	240
Modified fire regimes and silviculture	144	80
Pollution of water, air, or soil	144	140
Mineral, gas, oil, and geothermal extraction or exploration	140	140
Industrial, institutional, and military activities	131	220
Harvest, Intentional and incidental	120	220
Logging	109	80
Road presence, construction, and maintenance	94	100
Loss of genetic variability, inbreeding depression, or hybridization	92	240
Aquifer depletion, wetland draining or filling	77	40
Native species interactions, plant succession	77	160
Disease	19	20
Vandalism (destruction without harvest)	12	0

Adapted from Czech et al. 2000 – we need to get permission if we decide to include

4. The relative sensitivity of each habitat type to each threat on the landscape is the final factor used when generating the total degradation in a cell with habitat (in Kareiva et al. 2010 habitat sensitivity is referred to by its inverse, "resistance"). Let $S_{jr} \in [0,1]$ indicate the sensitivity of LULC (habitat type) j to threat r where values closer to 1 indicate greater sensitivity. The model assumes that the more sensitive a habitat type is to a threat, the more degraded the habitat type will be by that threat. A habitat's sensitivity to threats should be based on general principles from landscape ecology for conserving biodiversity (e.g., Forman 1995; Noss 1997; Lindenmayer et al 2008). To reiterate, if we have assigned

species group-specific habitat suitability scores to each LULC then habitat sensitivity to threats should be specific to the modeled species group.

Therefore, the total threat level in grid cell x with LULC or habitat type j is given by D_{xj},

$$D_{xj} = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{y=1}^{Y_r} \left(w_r \Big/ \sum_{r=1}^{R} w_r \right) o_{ry} i_{rxy} \beta_x S_{jr} \qquad (3)$$

where y indexes all grid cells on r's raster map and Y_r indicates the set of grid cells on r's raster map. Note that each threat map can have a unique number of grid cells due to variation in raster resolution If $S_{jr} = 0$ then D_{xj} is not a function of threat r. Also note that threat weights are normalized so that the sum across all threats weights equals 1.

By normalizing weights such that they sum to 1 we can think of D_{xj} as the weighted average of all threat levels in grid cell x. The map of D_{xj} will change as the set of weights we use change. Please note that two sets of weights will only differ if the relative differences between the weights in each set differ. For example, set of weights of 0.1, 0.1, and 0.4 are the same as the set of weights 0.2, 0.2, and 0.8.

A grid cell's degradation score is translated into a habitat quality value using a half saturation function where the user must determine the half-saturation value. As a grid cell's degradation score increases its habitat quality decreases. Let the quality of habitat in parcel x that is in LULC j be given by Q_{xj} where,

$$Q_{xj} = H_j \left(1 - \left(D_{xj}^z \Big/ D_{xj}^z + k^z \right) \right) \qquad (4)$$

and z (we hard code $z = 2.5$) and k are scaling parameters (or constants). Q_{xj} is equal to 0 if $H_j = 0$. Q_{xj} increases in H_j and decreases in D_{xj}. Q_{xj} can never be greater than 1. The k constant is the half-saturation constant and is set by the user. The parameter k is equal to the D value where $1 - \left(D_{xj}^z \Big/ D_{xj}^z + k^z \right) = 0.5$. For example, if $k = 5$ then $1 - \left(D_{xj}^z \Big/ D_{xj}^z + k^z \right) = 0.5$ when $D_{xj} = 5$. In the biodiversity model interface we set $k = 30$ but the user can change it (see note in Data Needs section, #8). If you are doing scenario analyses, whatever value you chose for k the first landscape you run the model on, that same k must be used for all alternative scenarios on the same landscape. Similarly, whatever spatial resolution you chose the first time you run the model on a landscape use the same value for all additional model runs on the same landscape. If you want to change your choice of k or the spatial resolution for any model run then you have to change the parameters for all model runs, if you are comparing multiple scenarios on the same landscape.

Habitat Rarity

While mapping habitat quality can help to identify areas where biodiversity is likely to be most intact or imperiled, it is also critical to evaluate the relative rarity of habitats on the landscape regardless of quality. In many conservation plans, habitats that are rarer are given higher priority, simply because options and opportunities for conserving them are limited and if all such habitats are lost, so too are the species and processes associated with them.

The relative rarity of a LULC type on a current or projected landscape is evaluated vis-à-vis a baseline LULC pattern. A rare LULC type on a current or projected map that is also rare on some ideal or reference state on the landscape (the baseline) is not likely to be in critical danger of disappearance, whereas a rare LULC type on a current or projected map that was abundant in the past (baseline) is at risk.

In the first step of the rarity calculation we take the ratio between the current or projected and past (baseline) extents of each LULC type *j*. Subtracting this ratio from one, the model derives an index that represents the rarity of that LULC class on the landscape of interest.

$$R_j = 1 - \frac{N_j}{N_{j,baseline}} \quad (5)$$

where N_j is the number of grid cells of LULC *j* on the current or projected map and $N_{j,baseline}$ gives the number of grid cells of LULC *j* on the baseline landscape. The calculation of R_j requires that the baseline, current, and/or projected LULC maps are all in the same resolution. In this scoring system, the closer to 1 a LULC's *R* score is, the greater the likelihood that the preservation of that LULC type on the current or future landscape is important to biodiversity conservation. If LULC *j* did not appear on the baseline landscape then we set $R_j = 0$.

Once we have a R_j measure for each LULC type, we can quantify the overall rarity of habitat type in grid cell *x* with:

$$R_x = \sum_{x=1}^{X} \sigma_{xj} R_j \quad (6)$$

where $\sigma_{xj} = 1$ if grid cell *x* is in LULC *j* on a current or projected landscape and equals 0 otherwise.

Limitations and simplifications

In this model all threats on the landscape are additive, although there is evidence that, in some cases, the collective impact of multiple threats is much greater than the sum of individual threat levels would suggest.

Because the chosen landscape of interest is typically nested within a larger landscape, it is important to recognize that a landscape has an artificial boundary where the habitat threats immediately outside of the study boundary have been clipped and ignored. Consequently, threat intensity will always be less on the edges of a given landscape. There are two ways to avoid this problem. One, you can choose a landscape for modeling purposes whose spatial extent is significantly beyond the boundaries of your landscape of interest. Then, after results have been generated, you can extract the results just for the interior landscape of interest. Or the user can limit themselves to landscapes where degradation sources are concentrated in the middle of the landscape.

Data needs

The model uses seven types of input data (five are required).

1. **Current LULC map (required)**. A GIS raster dataset, with a numeric LULC code for each cell. The dataset should be in a projection where the units are in meters and the projection used should be defined.

   Name: it can be named anything.
   Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 2 for agriculture, 3 for grassland, etc.). The LULC class codes should be in the grid's 'value' column. The raster should not contain any other data. The LULC codes must match the codes in the "Sensitivity of land cover types to each threat" table below (input # 7).
   Sample Data Set: \Invest\Base_Data**lulc_samp_cur**

2. **Future LULC map (optional):** A GIS raster dataset that represents a future projection of LULC in the landscape. This file should be formatted exactly like the "current LULC map" (input #1). LULC that appears on the current and future maps should have the same LULC code. LULC types unique to the future map should have codes not used in the current LULC map.

   Name: it can be named anything.
   Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.). The LULC class codes should be in the raster's 'value' column.
   Sample data set: \Invest\Base_data**lulc_samp_fut**

3. **Baseline LULC map (optional)**. A GIS raster dataset of LULC types on some baseline landscape with a numeric LULC code for each cell. This file should be formatted exactly like the "current LULC map" (input #1). The LULCs that are common to the current or future and baseline landscapes should have the same LULC code across all maps. LULC types unique to the baseline map should have codes not used in the current or future LULC map.

   If possible the baseline map should refer to a time when intensive mamagement of the land was relatively rare. For example, a map of LULC in 1851 in the Willamette Valley of Oregon, USA, captures the LULC pattern on the landscape before it was severely modified to for massive agricultural production. Granted this landscape had been modified by American Indian land clearing practices such as controlled fires.

   Name: it can be named anything.
   Format**:** standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.). The LULC class codes should be in the grid 'value' column.
   Sample data set: \Invest\Base_data**lulc_samp_bse**

4. **Threat data (required).** A table of all threats you want the model to consider. The table contains information on the each threat's relative importance or weight and its impact across space.

   Name: file can be named anything
   File Type: *.dbf or *.xls if using ArcGIS 9.3
   Rows: each row is a degradation source
   Columns: each column contains a different attribute of each degradation source, and must be named as follows:
   - **a.** THREAT: the name of the specific threat. **Threat names must not exceed 8 characters.**
   - **b.** MAX_DIST: the maximum distance over which each threat affects habitat quality (measured in km). The impact of each degradation source will decline to zero at this maximum distance.
   - **c.** WEIGHT: the impact of each threat on habitat quality, relative to other threats. Weights can range from 1 at the highest, to 0 at the lowest.
   - **d.** DECAY: Indicates whether the impact of the threat decreases linearly or exponentially across space. Value can be either 0 or 1. A value of 1 indicates a linear decline in impact, while 0 indicates an exponential decline.

   Sample Data Set: \Invest\Biodiversity\Input**threats_samp.dbf**

   Example: Hypothetical study with three threats. Agriculture degrades habitat over a larger distance than roads do, and has a greater overall magnitude of impact. Further, paved roads attract more traffic than dirt roads and thus are more destructive to nearby habitat than dirt roads.

THREAT	MAX_DIST	WEIGHT	DECAY
dirt_rd	2	0.1	1
Paved_rd	4	0.4	1
Agric	8	1	0

5. **Sources of threats(s) (required)**. GIS raster file of the distribution and intensity of each individual threat. You will have as many of these maps as you have threats. Each cell in the raster contains a value that indicates the density or presence of a threat within it (e.g., area of agriculture, length of roads, or simply a 1 if the grid cell is a road or crop field and 0 otherwise). All threats should be measured in the same scale and units (i.e., all measured in density terms or all measured in presence/absence terms and not some combination of metrics). The extent and resolution of these raster datasets does not need to be identical to that of the scenario maps (the LULCs map from inputs #1, #2, or #3). In cases where the threats and LULC map resolutions vary, the model will use the resolution and extent of the LULC cover map. InVEST will not prompt you for these rasters in the tool interface. It will instead automatically find and use each one, based on names in the "Threats data" table (input # 4). Therefore, these threat maps need to be in a file named "input" that is one level below the workspace identified in the model interface (see below).

Please do not leave any area on the threat maps as 'No Data'. If an area has not threat set the area's threat level equal to 0.

If you are analyzing habitat quality for more than one LULC scenario (e.g., a current and future map or a baseline, current, and future map) then you need a set of threat layers for each modeled scenario. Add a "*c*" at the end of the raster for all "current" threat layers, a "*f*" for all future threat layers, and a "*b*" for all "baseline" threat layers. If you do not use such endings then the model assumes the degradation source layers correspond to the current map. If a threat noted in the Threats data table (input # 4) is inappropriate for the LULC scenario that you are analyzing (e.g., industrial development on a Willamette Valley pre-settlement map from 1851) then enter a threat map for that time period that has all 0 values. If you do not include threat maps for a submitted LULC scenario then the model will not calculate habitat quality on the scenario LULC map.

Finally, note that we assume that the relative weights of threats and sensitivity of habitat to threats do not change over time (we only submit one Threat data table and one Habitat sensitivity data table (inputs # 4 and # 7)). If you want to change these over time then you will have to run the model multiple times.

Name: the name of each raster file should exactly match the name of a degradation source in the rows of the Threats data table (input #2) above with the added "*_b*", "*_c*", or "*_f*" to indicate the threat map's period. File name cannot be longer than 7 characters if using a GRID format.
Format**:** standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with a relative degradation source value for each cell from that particular degradation source. The "Value" column indicates the relative degradation source that cell shows.
File location**:** files must be saved in a folder titled "input" within the model's workspace (see below).
Sample data sets: \Invest\Biodiversity\Input*crp_c; crp_f; rr_c; rr_f; urb_c; urb_f; rot_c; rot_f; prds_c; prds_f; srds_c; srds_f; lrds_c; lrds_f.* By using these sets of inputs we are running a habitat quality and rarity analysis for the current and future LULC scenario maps. A habitat quality map will not be generated for the baseline map because we have not submitted any threat layers for the baseline map. The name 'crp' refers to cropland, 'rr' to rural residential, 'urb' to urban, 'rot' to rotation forestry, 'prds' to primary roads, 'srds' to secondary roads, and 'lrds' to light roads.

6. **Accessibility to sources of degradation (optional)**. A GIS polygon shapefile containing data on the relative protection that legal / institutional / social / physical barriers provide against threats. Polygons with minimum accessibility (e.g., strict nature reserves, well protected private lands) are assigned some number less than 1, while polygons with maximum accessibility (e.g., extractive reserves) are assigned a value 1. These polygons can be land management units or a regular array or hexagons or grid squares. Any cells not covered by a polygon will be assumed to be fully accessible and assigned values of 1.

   File type: GIS polygon shapefile.
   Name: file can be named anything.

Rows: each row is a specific polygon on the landscape
Columns:

a. ID: unique identifying code for each polygon. FID also works.
b. Access: values between 0 and 1 for each parcel, as described above.

Sample data set: \Invest**access_samp.shp**

7. **Habitat types and sensitivity of habitat types to each threat (required)**. A table of LULC types, whether or not they are considered habitat, and, for LULC types that are habitat, their specific sensitivity to each threat.

Name: file can be named anything
File type: *.dbf or *.xls if using ArcMAP 9.3
Rows: each row is a LULC type.
Columns: columns contain data on land use types and their sensitivities to threatss.
Columns must be named according to the naming conventions below.

- **a.** LULC: numeric code for each LULC type. Values must match the codes used in the LULC maps submitted in inputs # 1 through 3. All LULC types that appear in the current, future, or baseline maps (inputs # 1 through 3) need to appear as a row in this table.
- **b.** NAME: the name of each LULC
- **c.** HABITAT: Each LULC is assigned a habitat score, H_j, from 0 to 1. If you want to simply classify each LULC as habitat or not without reference to any particular species group then use 0s and 1s where a 1 indicates habitat. Otherwise, if sufficient information is available on a species group's habitat preferences, assign LULC a relative habitat suitability score from 0 to 1 where 1 indicates the highest habitat suitability. For example a grassland songbird may prefer a native prairie habitat above all other habitat types (prairie is given a "Habitat" score of 1 for grassland birds), but will also use a managed hayfield or pasture in a pinch (managed hayfield and pasture is given a "Habitat" score of 0.5 for grassland birds).
- **d.** L_*THREAT1*, L_*THREAT2*, etc.: The relative sensitivity of each habitat type to each threat. You will have as many columns named like this as you have threat, and the italicized portions of names must match row names in the "Threat data" table noted above (input # 4). Values range from 0 to 1, where 1 represents high sensitivity to a threat and 0 represents no sensitivity. **Note: Even if the LULC is not considered habitat, do not leave its sensitivity to each threat as Null or blank, instead enter a 0 and the model will convert it to NoData**.

Sample data set: \Invest\Biodiversity\Input**sensitivity_samp.dbf**

Example: A hypothetical study with four LULC and three threats. In this example we treat woodlands and forests as (absolute) habitat and bare soil and cultivated areas as (absolute) non-habitat. Forest mosaic is the most sensitive (least resistant) habitat type, and is more sensitive to dirt roads than paved roads or agriculture (0.9 versus 0.5 and 0.8). We enter 0's across all threats for the two developed land covers, base soil and cultivation.

LULC	NAME	HABITAT	L_AG	L_ROAD	L_DIRT_RD
1	Bare Soil	0	0	0	0
2	Closed Woodland	1	0.5	0.2	0.4
3	Cultivation	0	0	0	0
4	Forest Mosaic	1	0.8	0.8	0.5

8. **Half-saturation constant (required)**. This is the value of the parameter *k* in equation (4). By default it is set to 30 but can be set equal to any positive integer. In general, you want to set *k* to half of the highest grid cell degradation value on the landscape. To perform this model calibration you will have to the run the model once to find the highest degradation value and set *k* for your landscape. For example, if a preliminary run of the model generates a degradation map where the highest grid-cell degradation level is 10 then setting *k* at 5 will produce habitat quality maps with the greatest variation on the 0 to 1 scale (this helps with visual representation of heterogeneity in quality across the landscape). It is important to note that the rank order of grid cells on the habitat quality metric is invariant to your choice of *k*. The choice of *k* only determines the spread and central tendency of habitat quality scores. Please make sure to use the same value of *k* for all runs that involve the same landscape. If you want to change your choice of *k* for any model run then you have to change the parameters for all model runs.

Running the Biodiversity Model

Before running the Biodiversity Model, first make sure that the InVEST toolbox has been added to your ARCMAP document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this manual. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*. Specifically, you will need (1) a current LULC raster file showing the location of different LULC types in the landscape; (2) a future LULC raster if you wish to project future habitat quality and rarity across the landscape; (3) a baseline LULC map if you wish to express habitat rarity on the current and future landscapes or measure habitat extent and quality on the baseline landscape; (4) a threat data table denoting the intensity and distance over which a degradation source occurs; (5) grids showing the spatial distribution of each threat on each submitted map (current, future, and baseline); (6) a shapefile indicating the relatively accessibility to an area based on protection; (7) a table indicating the habitat suitability for each LULC and the sensitivity of each habitat type to each threat; and (8) a numeric value indicating the half-saturation constant.

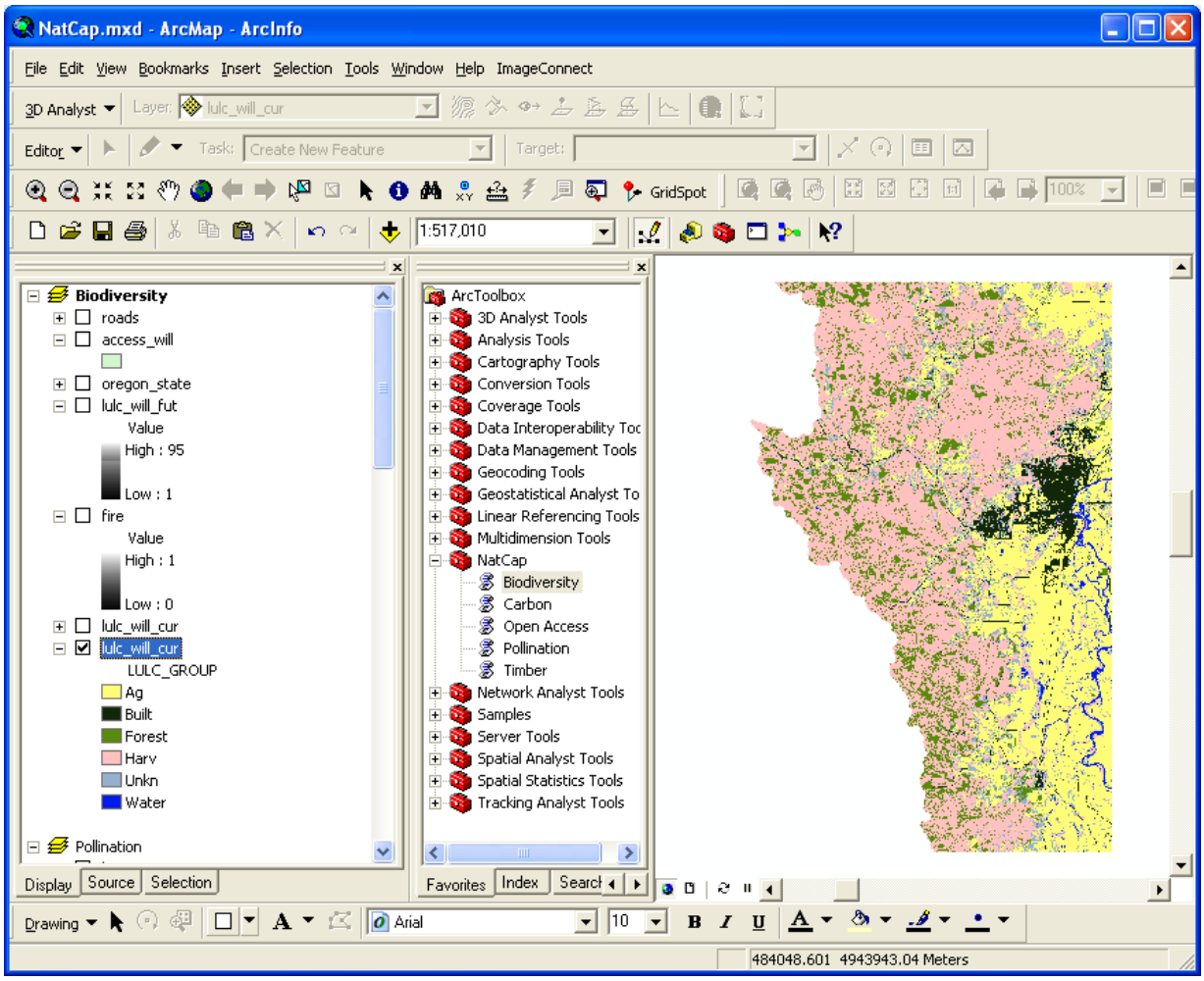
- Create a workspace

You must create a folder in your workspace called “input” and place all your input files here, including all your threat maps. If this is your first time using InVEST and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/**biodiversity**. This folder should be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/biodiversity/**input** and in /Invest/**base_data**.

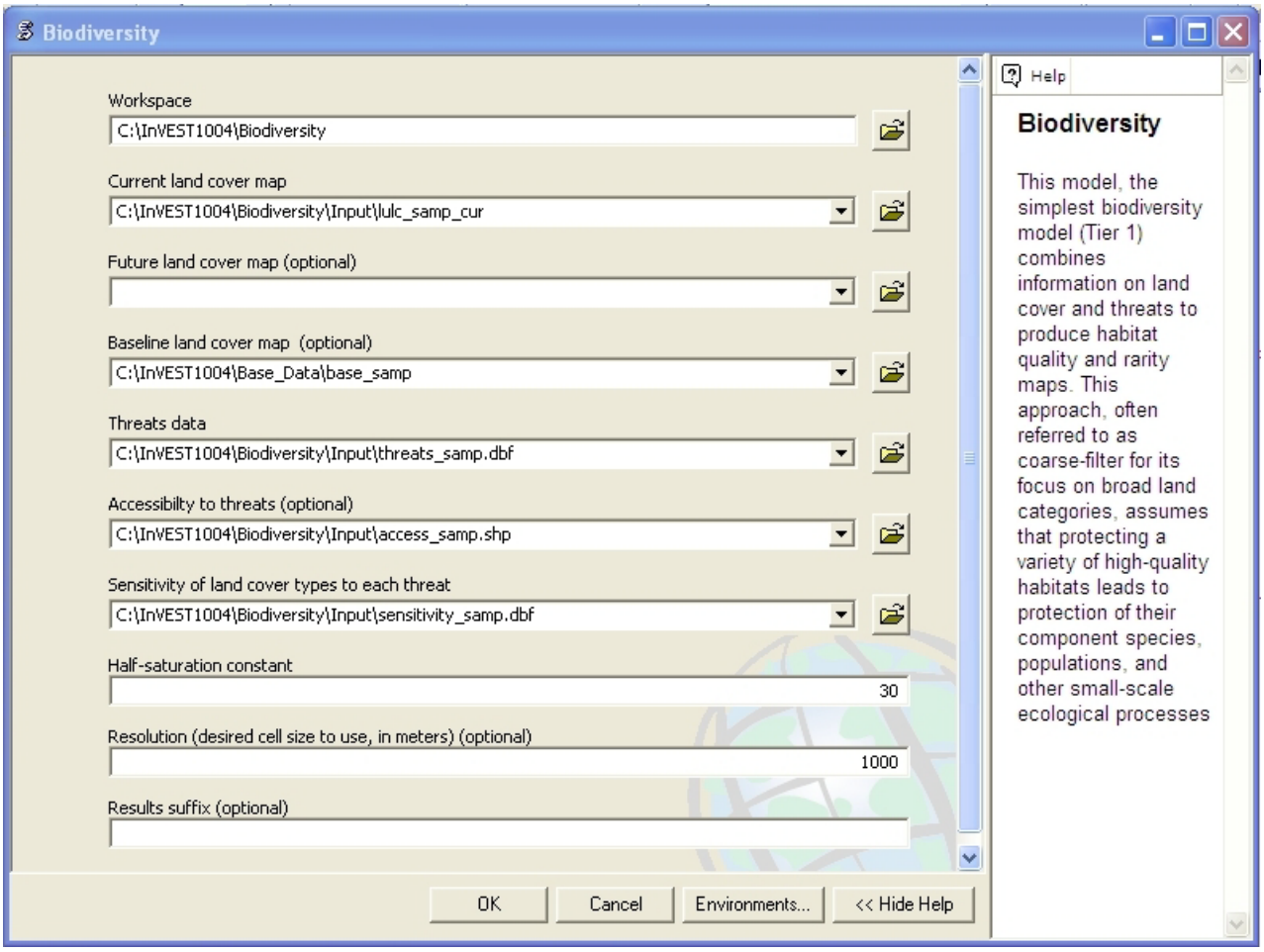
- Open an ARCMAP document to run your model.

- Find the INVEST toolbox in ARCTOOLBOX. ARCTOOLBOX should be open in ARCMAP, but if it is not, click on the ARCTOOLBOX symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you do not see the InVEST toolbox.

- Click once on the plus sign on the left side of the INVEST toolbox to see the list of tools expand. Double-click on Biodiversity.



- An interface will pop up like the one above that indicates default file names, but you can use the file buttons to browse to your data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. In addition, refer to the ***Data Needs*** section above for information on data formats.


Biodiversity
Workspace
C:\InVEST1004\Biodiversity
Current land cover map
C:\InVEST1004\Biodiversity\Input\lulc_samp_cur
Future land cover map (optional)
Baseline land cover map (optional)
C:\InVEST1004\Base_Data\base_samp
Threats data
C:\InVEST1004\Biodiversity\Input\threats_samp.dbf
Accessibilty to threats (optional)
C:\InVEST1004\Biodiversity\Input\access_samp.shp
Sensitivity of land cover types to each threat
C:\InVEST1004\Biodiversity\Input\sensitivity_samp.dbf
Half-saturation constant
30
Resolution (desired cell size to use, in meters) (optional)
1000
Results suffix (optional)
OK
Cancel
Environments...
<< Hide Help
Help
Biodiversity
This model, the simplest biodiversity model (Tier 1) combines information on land cover and threats to produce habitat quality and rarity maps. This approach, often referred to as coarse-filter for its focus on broad land categories, assumes that protecting a variety of high-quality habitats leads to protection of their component species, populations, and other small-scale ecological processes

- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires you to enter some data.

- After entering all values as required, click on OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue."

- Upon successful completion of the model, you will see new folders in your workspace called "intermediate" and "output." These folders contain several raster grids which are described in the next section.

- Load the output grids into ARCMAP using the ADD DATA button.

- You can change the SYMBOLOGY of a layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the table of contents, selecting PROPERTIES, and then SYMBOLOGY. There are many options here to change the file's appearance.

- You can also view the attribute data of output files by right clicking on a layer and selecting OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

Interpreting Results

Parameter Log

Each time the model is run, a text file will appear in the output folder. The file will list the parameter values for that run and will be named according to the service, the date and time, and the suffix.

Final Results

Final results are found in the "Output" folder of the workspace for this module.

degrad_cur[suffix] – Relative level of habitat degradation on the current landscape. A high score in a grid cell means habitat degradation in the cell is high relative to other cells. Grid cells with non-habitat land cover (LULC with $H_j = 0$) get a degradation score of 0. This is a mapping of degradation scores calculated with equation (3).

qual_cur [suffix] – Habitat quality on the current landscape. Higher numbers indicate better habitat quality vis-à-vis the distribution of habitat quality across the rest of the landscape. Areas on the landscape that are not habitat get a quality score of 0. This quality score is unitless and does not refer to any particular biodiversity measure. This is a mapping of habitat qulaity scores calculated with equation (4).

rarity_cur[suffix] – Relative habitat rarity on the current landscape vis-à-vis the baseline map. This output is only created if a baseline LULC map is submitted (input # 3). This map gives each grid cell's value of R_x (see equation (6)). The rarer the habitat type in a grid cell is vis-à-vis its abundance on the baseline landscape, the higher the grid cell's *rarity_cur* value.

Optional Output Files

If you are running a future scenario (i.e., you have provided input # 2 and future LULC scenario threat layers), you will also see *degrad_fut[suffix]* and *qual_fut[suffix]* in the output folder as well. Further, if you have submitted a baseline LULC map (input # 3) as well, you will also see the raster *rarity_fut[suffix]* in the output folder.

If you have entered a baseline map (input # 3) and threat layers for the baseline (input # 4)), then you will find the rasters *degrad_bse[suffix]*AND *qual_bse[suffix]* in the output folder.

Recall, if you are setting H_j for all LULC *j* on a continuum between 0 and 1 based on the habitat suitability for a particular species group then these results are only applicable to that species group.

<u>Modifying output and creating a landscape biodiversity score</u>

The model output doesn't provide landscape-level quality and rarity scores for comparing the baseline, current, and future LULC scenarios. Instead the user must summarize habitat extent and quality and rarity scores for each landscape. At the simplest level, a habitat quality landscape score for a LULC scenario is simply the aggregate of all grid cell-level scores under the scenario. In other words, we can sum all grid-level quality scores on the *qual_bse[suffix]* (if available), *qual_cur[suffix]*, and *qual_fut[suffix]* (if available) maps and then compare scores. A map may

have a higher aggregate quality score for several reasons. For one, it may just have more habitat area. However, if the amount of habitat across any two scenarios is approximately the same then a higher landscape quality score is indicative of better overall quality habitat.

Scores for certain areas on a landscape could also be compared. For example, we could compare aggregate habitat quality scores in areas of the landscape that are known to be in the geographic ranges of species of interest. For example, suppose we have geographic range maps of 9 species and have submitted current and future LULC scenario maps to the Tier 1 biodiversity model. In this case we would determine 18 aggregate habitat quality scores, once for each modeled species under each scenario. Let G_{s_cur} indicate the set of grid cells on the current landscape that are in *s*' range. Then the average habitat quality score in species *s*' range on the current landscape is given by,

$$Q_{s\_cur} = \frac{\sum_{x=1}^{G_{s\_cur}} Q_{xj\_cur}}{G_{s\_cur}} \quad (9)$$

where Q_{xj_cur} indicates the habitat quality score on parcel *x* in LULC *j* on the current landscape and $Q_{xj\_cur} = 0$ if *qual_cur* for *x* is "No Data". The average range-normalized habitat quality score for all 9 species on the current landscape would be given by,

$$Q_{cur} = \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S} Q_{s\_cur}\right) / 9 \quad (10)$$

Then we would repeat for the future landscape with the grid cells in set G_{s_fut} for each species *s* and the set of Q_{xj_fut}.

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CARBON STORAGE AND SEQUESTRATION

Summary

Terrestrial ecosystems, which store more carbon than the atmosphere, are vital to influencing carbon dioxide-driven climate change. The InVEST model uses maps of land use and land cover types and data on wood harvest rates, harvested product degradation rates, and stocks in four carbon pools (aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, soil, dead organic matter) to estimate the amount of carbon currently stored in a landscape or the amount of carbon sequestered over time. Additional data on the market or social value of sequestered carbon and its annual rate of change, and a discount rate can be used in an optional model that estimates the value of this ecosystem service to society. Limitations of the model include an oversimplified carbon cycle, an assumed linear change in carbon sequestration over time, and potentially inaccurate discounting rates.

Introduction

Ecosystems regulate Earth's climate by adding and removing greenhouse gases (GHG) such as CO_2 from the atmosphere. In fact, forests, grasslands, peat swamps, and other terrestrial ecosystems collectively store much more carbon than does the atmosphere (Lal 2002). By storing this carbon in wood, other biomass, and soil, ecosystems keep CO_2 out of the atmosphere, where it would contribute to climate change. Beyond just storing carbon, many systems also continue to accumulate it in plants and soil over time, thereby "sequestering" additional carbon each year. Disturbing these systems with fire, disease, or vegetation conversion (e.g., land use / land cover (LULC) conversion) can release large amounts of CO_2. Other management changes, like forest restoration or alternative agricultural practices, can lead to the storage of large amounts of CO_2. Therefore, the ways in which we manage terrestrial ecosystems are critical to regulating our climate.

As with all other models for which InVEST provides estimates of value, we are focused on the social value of carbon sequestration and storage. Terrestrial-based carbon sequestration and storage is perhaps the most widely recognized of all ecosystem services (Stern 2007, IPCC 2006, Canadell and Raupach 2008, Capoor and Ambrosi 2008, Hamilton et al. 2008, Pagiola 2008). The social value of a sequestered ton of carbon is equal to the social damage avoided by not releasing the ton of carbon into the atmosphere (Tol 2005, Stern 2007). Calculations of social cost are

complicated and controversial (see Weitzman 2007 and Nordhaus 2007b), but have resulted in value estimates that range from USD $9.55 to $84.55 per metric ton of CO_2 released into the atmosphere (Nordhaus 2007a and Stern 2007, respectively).

In addition to the social value of carbon sequestration and storage, there are several emerging markets for carbon based on both regulation and voluntary demand. The Kyoto Protocol – the current treaty addressing international climate change – includes a mechanism for establishing projects that sequester carbon to earn credits, which they then can sell to others needing to offset their own CO_2 emissions. As a result of the Kyoto Protocol, the European Union Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS) emerged to allow the regulated firms of the EU to trade their emissions allowances. The Chicago Climate Exchange (CCX) emerged in the United States, which is not a signatory party of the Kyoto Protocol. The CCX allows interested parties to trade emissions offsets that have been certified on a voluntary basis. The EU ETS and the CCX had prices of around 25 Euros and $USD 6 per metric ton of CO_2, respectively as of April 2008. In addition to these centralized markets, there is a substantial over-the-counter market for voluntary carbon offsets. For details about the price of these offsets, see Conte and Kotchen (2010).

Currently these markets only apply to carbon sequestration (i.e., the additional storage of carbon over time), but there is increased interest in financial incentives to avoid release of carbon from ecosystems in the first place, so-called "reduced emissions from deforestation and degradation" or "REDD" (Gibbs et al. 2007, Mollicone et al. 2007, Mackey et al. 2008). This option was accepted during the last meeting of the parties to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change and is likely to be written in to the follow up agreement to the Kyoto Protocol. Payments for REDD would financially reward forest owners for reversing their planned deforesting and thinning actions (Sedjo and Sohngen 2007, Sohngen et al. 2008). Issues of accounting and verification have slowed the emergence of REDD markets, but many are anticipating them with private transactions.

While market prices are one way to estimate the value of CO_2 sequestration, these prices will reflect policies, subsidies, and other factors, and therefore will only indicate the true value of this service to society by chance (Murray et al. 2007). For this reason, we recommend that users rely on the avoided damages associated with the emission of CO_2 into the atmosphere rather than prices in existing carbon markets to estimate the social value of carbon sequestration and storage.

Managing landscapes for carbon storage and sequestration requires information about how much and where carbon is stored, how much carbon is sequestered or lost over time, and how shifts in land use affect the amount of carbon stored and sequestered over time. Since land managers must choose among sites for protection, harvest, or development, maps of carbon storage and sequestration are ideal for supporting decisions influencing these ecosystem services.

Such maps can support a range of decisions by governments, NGOs, and businesses. For example, governments can use them to identify opportunities to earn credits for reduced (carbon) emissions from deforestation and degradation (REDD). Knowing which parts of a landscape store the most carbon would help governments efficiently target incentives to landowners in exchange for forest conservation. Additionally, a conservation NGO may wish to invest in areas where high levels of biodiversity and carbon sequestration overlap (Nelson et al. 2008). A timber company may also want to maximize its returns from both timber production and REDD carbon credits (Plantinga and

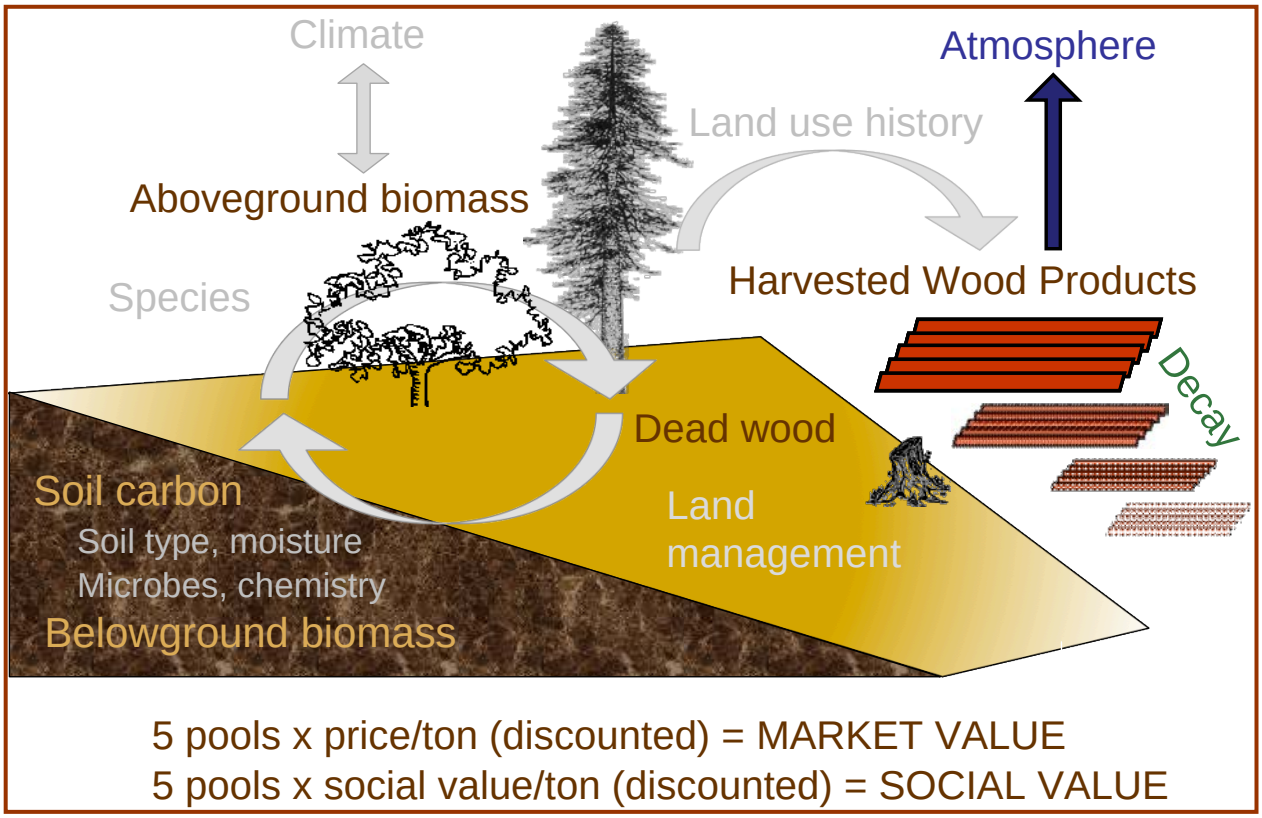


Figure 1. Conceptual model of carbon storage and sequestration. Parameters depicted in color are included in the InVEST model, while those in gray are not.

Birdsey 1994), in which case they could use the InVEST timber production model in tandem with the carbon model to assess management options.

The Model

Carbon storage on a land parcel largely depends on the sizes of four carbon "pools:" aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, soil, and dead organic matter (Fig. 1). The InVEST Carbon Storage and Sequestration model aggregates the amount of carbon stored in these pools according to the land use maps and classifications produced by the user. Aboveground biomass comprises all living plant material above the soil (e.g., bark, trunks, branches, leaves). Belowground biomass encompasses the living root systems of aboveground biomass. Soil organic matter is the organic component of soil, and represents the largest terrestrial carbon pool. Dead organic matter includes litter as well as lying and standing dead wood. A fifth optional pool included in the model applies to parcels that produce harvested wood products (HWPs) such as firewood or charcoal or more long-lived products such as house timbers or furniture. Tracking carbon in this pool is useful because it represents the amount of carbon kept from the atmosphere by a given product.

Using maps of land use and land cover types and the amount of carbon stored in carbon pools, this model estimates: the net amount of carbon stored in a land parcel over time; the total biomass removed from a harvested area of the parcel, and the market and social values of the carbon

sequestered in remaining stock. Limitations of the model include an oversimplified carbon cycle, an assumed linear change in carbon sequestration over time, and potentially inaccurate discounting rates. Biophysical conditions important for carbon sequestration such as photosynthesis rates and the presence of active soil organisms are also not included in the model (Fig. 1).

How it works

The model runs on a gridded map of cells called raster format in GIS. If the HWP pool is included in the analysis, a polygon map of harvest parcels is also modeled. Each cell in the raster is assigned a land use and land use and land cover (LULC) type such as forest, pasture, or agricultural land. Each harvest polygon is assigned harvest type referring to the harvested product, harvest frequency, and product decay rates. After running the model in raster format, results can be summarized to practical land units such as individual properties, political units, or watersheds.

For each LULC type, the model requires an estimate of the amount of carbon in at least one of the four fundamental pools described above. If the user has data for more than one pool, the modeled results will be more complete. The model simply applies these estimates to the LULC map to produce a map of carbon storage in the carbon pools included.

For the fifth carbon pool, HWP, model values are defined for each parcel (polygon) and not for each LULC. For each parcel the user indicates the amount of biomass, in terms of carbon, removed per harvest, the frequency of harvests, and the rate at which the products that contain carbon degrade. With these data, the model calculates the amount of stored carbon that *originated* in a parcel but now resides in finished products such as houses or furniture. The model converts parcel level HWP carbon values into a grid cell layer that spatially matches the grid system used for the other four carbon storage pools.

The model aggregates the carbon in each of the five pools, providing an estimate of total carbon storage in each grid cell and across the whole landscape. If carbon storage data for a given pool are not mapped, then total carbon storage will be underestimated. The model also outputs the total biomass and volume of wood removed from each harvested parcel up to the year associated with the modeled landscape.

If the user provides both a current and future LULC map, then the net change in carbon storage over time (sequestration and loss) and its social value can be calculated. To estimate this change in carbon sequestration over time, the model is simply applied to the current landscape and a projected future landscape, and the difference in storage is calculated, map unit by map unit. If multiple future scenarios are available, the differences between the current and each alternate future landscape can be compared.

Outputs of the model are expressed as Mg of carbon per grid cell, or if desired, the value of sequestration in dollars per grid cell. We strongly recommend using the social value of carbon sequestration if the user is interested in expressing sequestration in monetary units. The social value of a sequestered ton of carbon is the social damage avoided by not releasing the ton of carbon into the atmosphere. The market value may be applicable if the user is interested in identifying the value of the landscape for trading under current market conditions. The market

value of terrestrial-based carbon sequestration is the price per metric ton of carbon traded in marketplaces such as the Chicago Climate Exchange (ECX).

The valuation model estimates the economic value of sequestration (not storage) as a function of the amount of carbon sequestered, the monetary value of each unit of carbon, a monetary discount rate, and the change in the value of carbon sequestration over time (Fig. 1). Thus, **valuation can only be done in the carbon model if you have a future scenario.** Valuation is applied to sequestration, not storage, because current market prices relate only to carbon sequestration. Discount rates are multipliers that typically reduce the value of carbon sequestration over time. The first type of discounting, the standard economic procedure of financial discounting, reflects the fact that people typically value immediate benefits more than future benefits due to impatience and uncertain economic growth. The second discount rate adjusts the social value of carbon sequestration over time. This value will change as the impact of carbon emissions on expected climate change-related damages changes. If we expect carbon sequestered today to have a greater impact on climate change mitigation than carbon sequestered in the future this second discount rate should be positive. On the other hand, if we expect carbon sequestered today to have less of an impact on climate change mitigation than carbon sequestered in the future this second discount rate should be negative.

Limitations and simplifications

The model greatly oversimplifies the carbon cycle which allows it to run with relatively little information, but also leads to important limitations. For example, the model assumes that none of the LULC types in the landscape are gaining or losing carbon over time. Instead it is assumed that all LULC types are at some fixed storage level equal to the average of measured storage levels within that LULC type. Under this assumption, the only changes in carbon storage over time are due to changes from one LULC type to another or from the harvest of wood products. Therefore, any grid cell that does not change its LULC type and is at a wood harvest steady-state will have a sequestration value of 0 over time. In reality, many areas are recovering from past land use or are undergoing natural succession. The problem can be addressed by dividing LULC types into age classes (essentially adding more LULC types), such as three ages of forest. Then, parcels can move from one age class to the other in scenarios and change their carbon storage values as a result.

A second limitation is that because the model relies on carbon storage estimates for each LULC type, the results are only as detailed and reliable as the LULC classification used. Carbon storage clearly differs among LULC types (e.g., tropical forest vs. open woodland), but often there can also be significant variation within a LULC type. For example, carbon storage within a “tropical moist forest” is affected by temperature, elevation, rainfall, and the number of years since a major disturbance (e.g., clear-cut or forest fire). The variety of carbon storage values within coarsely defined LULC types can be partly recovered by using a LULC classification system and related carbon pool table which stratifies coarsely defined LULC types with relevant environmental and management variables. For example, forest LULC types can be stratified by elevation, climate bands or time intervals since a major disturbance. Of course, this more detailed approach requires

data describing the amount of carbon stored in each of the carbon pools for each of the finer LULC classes.

Another limitation of the model is that it does not capture carbon that moves from one pool to another. For example, if trees in a forest die due to disease, much of the carbon stored in aboveground biomass becomes carbon stored in other (dead) organic material. Also, when trees are harvested from a forest, branches, stems, bark, etc. are left as slash on the ground. The model assumes that the carbon in wood slash "instantly" enters the atmosphere.

With respect to its estimates of carbon in HWPs, the model is constrained by the fact that users may assign only one harvest rate (e.g., 50 Mg of wood per harvest where a harvest occurs every 2 years) and only one decay rate (e.g., the wood harvested from the parcel over the years is always used to make the same product that decays at the same rate) to each parcel. In reality, harvested parcels will exhibit variation in harvest and decay rates over time. The model also does not account for the greenhouse gasses (GHGs) emitted from the transportation of harvested wood from its initial harvest site to its final destination, the conversion of raw wood into finished products, or agriculture-related activities such as from tractors and livestock. Annual GHG emissions from agricultural land use can be calculated with the InVEST **Agriculture Production Model**, due to be released soon.

Finally, while most sequestration follows a nonlinear path such that carbon is sequestered at a higher rate in the first few years and a lower rate in subsequent years, the model's economic valuation of carbon sequestration assumes a linear change in carbon storage over time. The assumption of a constant rate of change will tend to undervalue the carbon sequestered, as a nonlinear path of carbon sequestration is more socially valuable due to discounting than a linear path (Fig. 2).

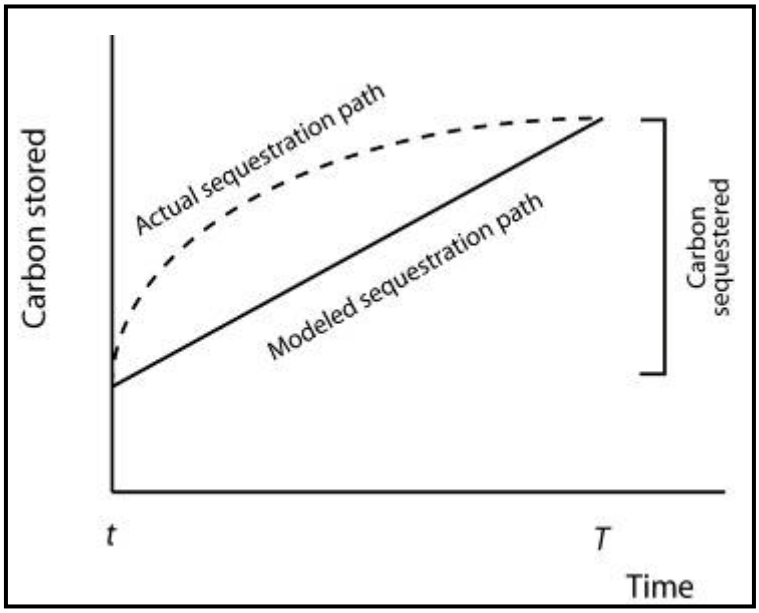


Figure 2*: The model assumes a linear change in carbon storage (the solid line), while the actual path to the year T's carbon storage level may be non-linear (like the dotted line). In this case t can indicate the year of the current landscape and T the year of the future landscape. With positive discounting, the value of the modeled path (the solid line) is less valuable than the actual path. Therefore, if sequestration paths tend to follow the dotted line, the modeled valuation of carbon sequestration will underestimate the actual value of the carbon sequestered.*

Data needs

The model uses five maps and tables of input data, two are required, and three are optional. This section outlines the map and data tables required by the model, including the economic data that the tool interface will prompt the user to enter. See Appendix for detailed information on data sources and pre-processing.

1. **Current land use/land cover (LULC) map (required)**. A GIS raster dataset, with a LULC code for each cell. The dataset should be projected in meters and the projection used should be defined.

   Name: file can be named anything, but avoid spaces
   Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.) These codes must match LULC codes in the tables below. LULC class codes should be in the 'LULC' column of the dataset.

   Sample data set: \Invest\Base_Data**lulc_samp_cur**

   The model requires the following two pieces of information about the LULC map which are prompted for in the interface.

   - The **year** depicted by the LULC map, for use in calculating sequestration and economic values (labeled "Year of current land cover" in the interface).
   - The **spatial resolution** (desired cell size in meters) at which you would like the model to run (labeled "Resolution (optional)"). You can only define a new resolution that is coarser than the resolution of the LULC map (this is the default resolution).

2. **Carbon pools (required)**. A table of LULC classes, containing data on carbon stored in each of the four fundamental pools for each LULC class. Carbon storage data can be collected from field estimates from local plot studies, extracted from meta-analyses on specific habitat types or regions, or found in general published tables (e.g., IPCC, see Appendix). If information on some carbon pools is not available, pools can be estimated from other pools, or omitted by leaving all values for the pool equal to 0.

   If a forest is regularly harvested for woody biomass, the estimates of carbon biomass in the aboveground, belowground, and dead organic matter pools should reflect this fact. For example, suppose one of the LULC types is a plantation forest that tends to have one-tenth of its area clear-cut every year. The aboveground and belowground estimates of carbon biomass for this LULC type should reflect the fact that only $9/10^{ths}$ of the area occupied by plantation forests will be covered by trees at any point in time.

   Name: file can be named anything
   File type: *.dbf
   Rows: each row is a LULC class
   Columns: each column contains a different attribute of each LULC class, and must be named as follows:

a. *LULC*: code of land use/land cover class (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.). The LULC code should match the LULC codes from the current LULC map (dataset #1 above)
b. *LULC_name*: descriptive name of LULC class (optional)
c. *C_above*: amount of carbon stored in aboveground biomass (in Mg ha^{-1})
d. *C_below*: amount of carbon stored in belowground biomass (in Mg ha^{-1})
e. *C_soil*: amount of carbon stored in soil (in Mg ha^{-1})
f. *C_dead*: amount of carbon stored in dead organic matter (in Mg ha^{-1})

Note: The unit for all carbon pools is Mg of **elemental carbon** ha^{-1}. This means that if your data source has information on Mg of CO_2 stored ha^{-1}, you need to convert those numbers to elemental carbon by multiplying Mg of CO_2 stored ha^{-1} by 0.2727.

Sample data set: \Invest\Carbon\Input**carbon_pools_samp.dbf**

Example: Hypothetical study with five LULC classes. Class 1 (Forest) contains the most carbon in all pools. In this example, carbon stored in above- and below-ground biomass differs strongly among land use classes, but carbon stored in soil varies less dramatically.

LULC	LULC_name	C_above	C_below	C_soil	C_dead
1	Forest	140	70	35	12
2	Coffee	65	40	25	6
3	Pasture/grass	15	35	30	4
4	Shrub/undergrowth	30	30	30	13
5	Open/urban	5	5	15	2

3. **Current harvest rates map (optional)**. A GIS shape file of polygons (parcels in our vernacular), contains data on:
   a. Parcel ID
   b. Amount of carbon, in the form of woody biomass, typically removed from the parcel over the course of a harvest period
   c. Date that the modeler wants to begin accounting for wood harvests in the parcel
   d. Frequency of harvest periods in the parcel in the past
   e. Average decay rate of products made from the wood harvested from a parcel
   f. Average carbon density of the wood removed form the parcel in the past
   g. Average tree volume per ton of wood removed form the parcel in the past.

The GIS polygon map should *only* delineate parcels that have been harvested; all other portions of the landscape should be ignored. Note that unlike the current LULC map, this file contains multiple data for each individual harvest parcel on the landscape.

The amount of carbon that is removed, on average, during each harvest period can be estimated from plot surveys, market demand analyses, community surveys, or based on expert opinion. Decay rates can be estimated from literature reports (see sources in Appendix) or also based on expert opinion if necessary. If multiple types of wood products are harvested from a polygon, the user should average the rates of decay or focus on the

product with the slowest decay rate (since that will affect storage the most). Because only woody biomass is included in the harvest portion of the model, it is not necessary to include harvest or decay rates for herbaceous products. If you are unable or uninterested in estimating carbon stored in harvested wood products, you do not need to supply this table and the model will ignore this pool.

Name: file can be named anything
File type: GIS polygon shapefile
Rows: each row is a specific polygon on the landscape.
Columns: columns contain attributes related to harvested wood products and must be named as follows:

- **a.** *FID*: unique identifying code for each polygon (parcels in our vernacular).
- **b.** *Cut_cur*: The amount of carbon typically removed from a parcel during a harvest period (measured in Mg ha^{-1}; the model will sum across the area of each parcel). This amount should only include the portion of the wood's carbon that is removed from the parcel (e.g., the carbon in the wood delivered to a saw mill). In other words, the slash and other waste from a wood harvest should be ignored because the model assumes that its carbon content is lost to the atmosphere instantly (the "cur" at the end of this attribute is used to relate it to the "current" LULC map).
- **c.** *Start_date*: The first year the carbon removed from a forest will be accounted for in the HWP pool. The first year should coincide with a year in which wood was actually harvested from the parcel. If wood was harvested from a parcel in 1995, 2000, and 2005 and the LULC map being evaluated is from 2005 then *St_date* can equal 1995, 2000, or 2005; it is your choice.
- **d.** *Freq_cur*: The frequency, in years, with which the *Cut_cur* amount is harvested. If the value is 1 then the *Cut_cur* amount is removed annually from the parcel, if 5 then every 5 years, etc.
- **e.** *Decay_cur*: The half-life of wood products harvested, measured in years.
- **f.** *C_den_cur*: The carbon density in the harvested wood (MgC Mg^{-1} of dry wood). Typically, the statistic ranges between 0.43 and 0.55 (see table 4.3 of IPCC (2006)). If *C_den_cur* is not known for a parcel set it equal to 0.5.
- **g.** *BCEF_cur*: An expansion factor that translates the mass of harvested wood into volume of harvested wood (Biomass Conversion Expansion Factor). The expansion factor is measured in Mg of dry wood per m^3 of wood and is a function of stand type and stand age. If you do not have data on this expansion factor you can use the $BCEF_R$ row in table 4.5 of IPCC (2006). Otherwise, set this expansion factor equal to 1 for each parcel.

Sample data set: \Invest\Carbon\Input**harv_samp_cur.shp**

Example: A hypothetical study of carbon storage in HWP for four forest parcels that have experienced harvests in the past. Assume the current LULC map we are using corresponds to the year 2005. Parcels 1, 2, and 3 are forests that are managed for timber production. Each managed forest experiences a cut every 5^{th} year where *Cut_cur* gives the amount of carbon (Mg ha^{-1}) in the portion of the wood that is removed every fifth year. The 4^{th} parcel is a source of firewood and wood is cut from the parcel continuously. Thus, for this parcel we estimate the annual rate of carbon removed from the forest for firewood. For the first three

parcels, we began to account for carbon removal in 1995. For the final parcel we began accounting for HWP in 2000. (Recall that the calculation of *HWP_cur*, *Bio_HWP_cur*, and *Vol_HWP_cur* does not include the 2005 harvest; that carbon is still on the land.)

FID	Cut_cur	Start_date	Freq_cur	Decay_cur	C_den_cur	BCEF_cur
1	75	1995	5	30	0.5	1
2	50	1995	5	35	0.5	1
3	50	1995	5	50	0.5	1
4	45	2000	1	1	0.5	1

We measure the carbon stored in HWP that originated from parcel *x* on the current landscape with the following equation:

$$HWP\_cur_x = Cut\_cur_x \times \sum_{t=0}^{\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_cur - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right)-1} f\left(Decay\_cur_x; yr\_cur - start\_date_x - \left(t \times Freq\_cur_x\right)\right) \quad \text{(C1)}$$

where HWP_cur_x is measured in Mg ha^{-1}, *yr_cur* is short for "Year of current land cover", *t* indexes the number of harvest periods, and "ru" indicates that any fraction should be rounded up to the next integer value. The function

$$f(\bullet) = \left\lfloor \frac{1 - e^{-\omega_x}}{\omega_x \times e^{\left[yr\_cur - start\_date_x - (t \times Freq\_cur_x)\right] \times \omega_x}} \right\rfloor, \quad \text{(C2)}$$

where $\omega_x = (\log_e 2 / Decay\_cur_x)$, measures how much of the carbon was typically removed from a parcel (Cut_cur_x) during a harvest period, that occurred some number of years ago ($yr\_cur - start\_date_x - \left(t \times Freq\_cur_x\right)$), still remains trapped in HWP as of the current year (*yr_cur*) and given the current decay rate ($Decay\_cur_x$).

The following are several examples to show how equation (C1) works. In the first instance, assume $start\_date_x$ = 1983, *yr_cur* = 2000, and $Freq\_cur_x$ = 4. In this case, $\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_cur - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right) = \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{17}{4}\right) = \mathrm{ru}(4.25) = 5$. According to the summation term in equation (C1), this means we sum over 5 harvest periods (*t* = 0,1,2,3,4). Given this series of *t*, we evaluate *f* at 17, 13, 9, 5, and 1 years since a harvest (we use $yr\_cur - start\_date_x - \left(t \times Freq\_cur_x\right)$ to convert the series of *t*'s into years since harvest).

Alternatively, if $start\_date_x$ = 1980, *yr_cur* = 2000, and $Freq\_cur_x$ = 2 then $\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_cur - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right) = \mathrm{ru}(10) = 10$. Therefore, according to equation (C1), harvests that contained Cut_cur_x of carbon ha^{-1} occurred on the parcel 20, 18, 16, 14, 12, 10, 8, 6, 4, and 2 years before the year 2000 (note that we do not include a harvest that is scheduled to occur in the current year in the HWP carbon pool; this carbon is still *in situ* in the current year).

We use *C_den_cur* and *BCEF_cur* to measure the mass *(Bio_HWP_cur)* and volume *(Vol_HWP_cur)* of wood that has been removed from a parcel from the *start_date* to the current year. *Bio_HWP_cur* for parcel *x* is measured in Mg (dry matter) ha^{-1} and is given by:

$$Bio\_HWP\_cur_x = Cut\_cur_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_cur - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_cur_x} \quad \text{(C3)}$$

and *Vol_HWP_cur* for parcel *x* is measured in m^3 of wood ha^{-1} and is given by,

$$Vol\_HWP\_cur_x = Bio\_HWP\_cur_x \times \frac{1}{Vol\_exp\_cur_x} \quad \text{(C4)}$$

As mentioned before, the model places all parcel-level values into a grid cell map that comports with the four pool storage map.

4. **Future Scenarios (optional – required for valuation)**. If you have a LULC map (data input #1) for a future landscape scenario, then expected sequestration rates in the four major carbon pools on the landscape can be measured. Similarly, sequestration rates in the HWP carbon pool can be measured with a harvest rate map (data input #3) for this future landscape.

   A future land cover map (a raster dataset) should be formatted according to the same specifications as the current land cover map (input #1).

   If you provide a future harvest rate map then the HWP carbon pool can be tracked over time. The future harvest rate map should be formatted according to the same specifications as the current harvest rate map: a polygon map where values for FID, *Cut_fut*, *Freq_fut*, *Decay_fut*, *C_den_fut*, and *BCEF_fut* are attributed to each parcel that is expected be harvested at some point between the year given by $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$ and *yr_fut* where *yr_fut* indicates the year associated with the future land cover map (e.g., if *yr_cur* is 2000 and *fut_yr* is 2050 then $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$ = 2025). This means that current harvest rate map conditions hold on the landscape until the year halfway between the current and future years. The harvest variables for the future will be applied in the year $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$. Note that any fraction is round down (e.g., if *yr_cur* is 2000 and *fut_yr* is 2053 then $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$ = 2026). The **future harvest rate map** does not have to retain any spatial semblance to the current harvest rate map. Nor do parcels that are harvested on the current and future maps have to have a common FID.

   Sample data files for future scenarios are future land cover:
   (C:\InVEST\Base_Data**lulc_samp_fut)** and future harvest rate map
   (C:\InVEST\Carbon**harv_samp_fut.shp**).

   Example: A hypothetical study of future carbon storage in HWP for four forest parcels. Continuing with current harvest rate map (2005) described above. assume the future LULC

map corresponds to the year 2035. Three of the four forest parcels that have wood removed on the current landscape keep their boundaries in the future and continue to have wood removed into the future (parcels with FID 1, 3, and 4 on the current harvest rate map). However the first parcel changes its management with new *Cut* and *Freq* values ($Cut\_cur_x \neq Cut\_fut_x$ and $Freq\_cur_x \neq Freq\_fut_x$). We assume these new management conditions begin in the year 2020 (given by $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$). Parcel 2 is not expected to be harvested at any point between $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$ and *yr_fut*. Therefore, the model assumes that the harvest activity given in current harvest rate map for parcel 2 ends in 2020. In addition, the future harvest rate map includes a new harvested parcel (given by FID = 5). We assume that harvest begins there in 2020 as well. In parcels 3 and 4 harvest management does not change across the current and future landscapes. (Note that we retained the FID values across the two maps here; this is not necessary, as the ArcGIS program will perform the necessary spatial matches).

FID	Cut_fut	Freq_fut	Decay_fut	C_den_fut	BCEF_fut
1	50	10	30	0.5	1
3	50	5	50	0.5	1
4	45	1	1	0.5	1
5	25	2	15	0.5	1

Below we describe exactly how the future harvest values are calculated. If a parcel was harvested on the current landscape and is expected to be harvested on the future landscape (i.e., at some point between $\frac{yr\_cur + yr\_fut}{2}$ and *yr_fut*) then the remaining HWP carbon due to harvest from parcel *x* in the future year is given by:

$$HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_cur_x \times \sum_{t=0}^{ru\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2} - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right)-1} f\left(Decay\_cur_x, yr\_fut - start\_date_x - \left(t \times Freq\_cur_x\right)\right)\right) + \left(Cut\_fut_x \times \sum_{t=0}^{ru\left(\frac{yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x}\right)-1} f\left(Decay\_fut_x, yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2} - \left(t \times Freq\_fut_x\right)\right)\right) \quad \text{(C5)}$$

where the function *f* is as before. Recall that if (*yr_cur* + *yr_fut*) / 2 results in a fraction it is rounded down. Also note that equation (C5) does *not* include a harvest that is scheduled to occur in the future year; this harvest's carbon is *in situ* in this accounting. Parcels that were harvested on the current landscape but are not expected to be harvested on the future landscape may still have HWP carbon in the future year. The remaining HWP carbon in *yr_fut* on such parcels is given by the first term of equation (C5):

$$HWP\_fut_x = Cut\_cur_x \times \sum_{t=0}^{\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2}-start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right)-1} f\left(Decay\_cur_x, yr\_fut - start\_date_x - \left(t \times Freq\_cur_x\right)\right) \quad \text{(C6)}$$

In contrast, parcels that were *not harvested* on the current landscape, but are <u>expected to be harvested</u> on the future landscape, will have the following amount of carbon in the form of HWP in *yr_fut*:

$$HWP\_fut_x = Cut\_fut_x \times \sum_{t=0}^{\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_fut-\frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x}\right)-1} f\left(Decay\_fut_x, yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2} - \left(t \times Freq\_fut_x\right)\right) \quad \text{(C7)}$$

Note that this is the second term of equation (C5).

If a parcel was harvested on the current landscape and is <u>expected to be harvested</u> on the future landscape, the mass of harvested wood that has been <u>removed</u> from a parcel from *Start_date* to *yr_fut* is given by:

$$Bio\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_cur_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2} - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_cur_x}\right) + \left(Cut\_fut_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x}\right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_fut_x}\right) \quad \text{(C8)}$$

However, for parcels that were harvested on the <u>current</u> landscape, but are *not* expected to be harvested on the future landscape, the mass of wood removed from a parcel from *Start_date* to *yr_fut* is given by the first term of equation (C8):

$$Bio\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_cur_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2} - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x}\right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_cur_x}\right) \quad \text{(C9)}$$

For parcels that were *not* harvested on the current landscape but <u>are expected to be harvested</u> on the future landscape, the mass of wood removed from a parcel from *Start_date* to *yr_fut* is given by second term of equation (C8):

$$Bio\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_fut_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut+yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x}\right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_fut_x}\right) \quad \text{(C10)}$$

Finally, The volume of the of wood that has been removed from a parcel from *Start_date* to *yr_fut* is given by:

$$Vol\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_cur_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2} - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x} \right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_cur_x} \times \frac{1}{BCEF\_cur_x} \right) + \left(Cut\_fut_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x} \right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_fut_x} \times \frac{1}{BCEF\_cur_x} \right) , \quad \text{(C11)}$$

$$Vol\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_cur_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{\frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2} - start\_date_x}{Freq\_cur_x} \right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_cur_x} \times \frac{1}{BCEF\_cur_x} \right), \quad \text{(C12)}$$

or

$$Vol\_HWP\_fut_x = \left(Cut\_fut_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{yr\_fut - \frac{yr\_fut + yr\_cur}{2}}{Freq\_fut_x} \right) \times \frac{1}{C\_den\_fut_x} \times \frac{1}{BCEF\_cur_x} \right), \quad \text{(C13)}$$

depending on the combination of current and future harvests (see above).

We recommend that the modeler use *Bio_HWP_cur* and *Bio_HWP_fut* to refine the current and future LULC maps. Specifically, if *Bio_HWP_cur* or *Bio_HWP_fut* on a portion of the landscape are significant, then the modeler should assess whether the LULC types associated with that portion of the current or future landscape accurately reflect the biomass remaining on the landscape. For example, if the current LULC type on a portion of the landscape that has been heavily harvested in the immediate past is "closed conifer" it may be more appropriate to reclassify it as "thinned conifer" or "open conifer" on the LULC map.

5. **Economic data (optional – required for valuation)**. Three numbers are not supplied in a table, but instead are input directly through the tool interface.
    a. The **value of a sequestered ton of carbon**, in dollars per metric ton of elemental carbon (not CO_2, which is heavier, so be careful to get units right! If the social value of CO_2e is \$Y per metric ton, then the social value of C is \$(3.67*Y) per metric ton (Labeled "Price of carbon per metric ton (optional)" in the tool interface.) For applications interested in estimating the total value of carbon sequestration, we recommend value estimates based of damage costs associated with the release of an additional ton of carbon (the social cost of carbon (SCC). Stern (2007), Tol (2009), and Nordhaus (2007a) present estimates of SCC. For example, two SCC estimates we have used from Tol (2009) are \$66 and \$130 (in 2010 US dollars) (Polasky et al. 2010). For applications interested in estimating the value that could be gained by trading carbon credits in the current markets, the value can be taken from the current market prices on the Chicago or European Climate Exchanges.
    b. The **market discount rate** (*r* in the equation below), which reflects society's preference for immediate benefits over future benefits (labeled "Market discount rate (%) (optional)" in the tool interface). The default value in the interface is 7% per year, which is one of the market discount rates recommended by the U.S. government for cost-benefit evaluation of environmental projects. However, this rate will depend on the country and landscape being evaluated. Philosophical arguments have been made for using a lower discount rate when modeling climate change related

dynamics, which users may consider using. If the rate is set equal to 0% then monetary values are *not discounted*.

c. The **annual rate of change in the price of carbon** (*c* in the equation below), which adjusts the value of sequestered carbon as the impact of emissions on expected climate change-related damages changes over time. The default value in the interface is 0% (labeled "The annual rate of change in the price of carbon (%) (optional)" in the tool interface). However, setting this rate greater than 0% suggests that the societal value of carbon sequestered in the future is *less* than the value of carbon sequestered now. It has been widely argued that GHG emissions need to be curtailed *immediately* to avoid crossing a GHG atmospheric concentration threshold that would lead to a 3 degree Celsius or greater change in global average temperature by 2105. Some argue that such a temperature change would lead to major disruptions in economies across the world (Stern et al. 2006). Therefore, any mitigation in GHG emissions that occurs *many years from now* may have *no effect* on whether or not this crucial concentration threshold is passed. If this is the case, C sequestration in the far future would be relatively worthless and a carbon discount rate *greater* than zero is warranted. Alternatively, setting the annual rate of change *less* than 0% (e.g., -2%) suggests that the societal value of carbon sequestered in the future is *greater* than the value of carbon sequestered now (this is a separate issue than the value of money in the future, a dynamic accounted for with the market discount rate). This may be the case if the damages associated with climate change in the future accelerate as the concentration of GHGs in the atmosphere increases.

The **value of carbon sequestration over time** is given by:

$$value\_seq_x = \frac{sequest_x}{yr\_fut - yr\_cur} \times \sum_{t=0}^{yr\_fut-yr\_cur-1} \frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{r}{100}\right)^t \left(1+\frac{c}{100}\right)^t} \qquad \text{(C14)}$$

Running the Model

Before running the Carbon Storage and Sequestration model, make sure that the INVEST toolbox has been added to your ARCMAP document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in Data Needs. Specifically, you will need (1) a land cover raster file showing the location of different land cover and land use types in the landscape; and (2) a carbon pools file which denotes the amount of aboveground, belowground, and soil carbon, and carbon from dead biomass, by land cover type. Optionally, you may also include (1) a map of harvest rates; (2) economic data on the value of carbon; and (3) future land use/land cover and harvest rate data to project future carbon scenarios.

- Identify workspace

  If you are using your own data, you need to first create a workspace, or folder for the analysis data, on your computer hard-drive. The entire pathname to the workspace should not have any spaces. All your output files will be dumped here. For simplicity, you may wish to call the folder for your workspace "carbon" and create a folder in your workspace

called “input” and place all your input files here. It’s not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but advisable so you can easily see the data you use to run your model.

Or, if this is your first time using the tool and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/**carbon**. This folder will be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/carbon/**input** and in /Invest/**base_data**.

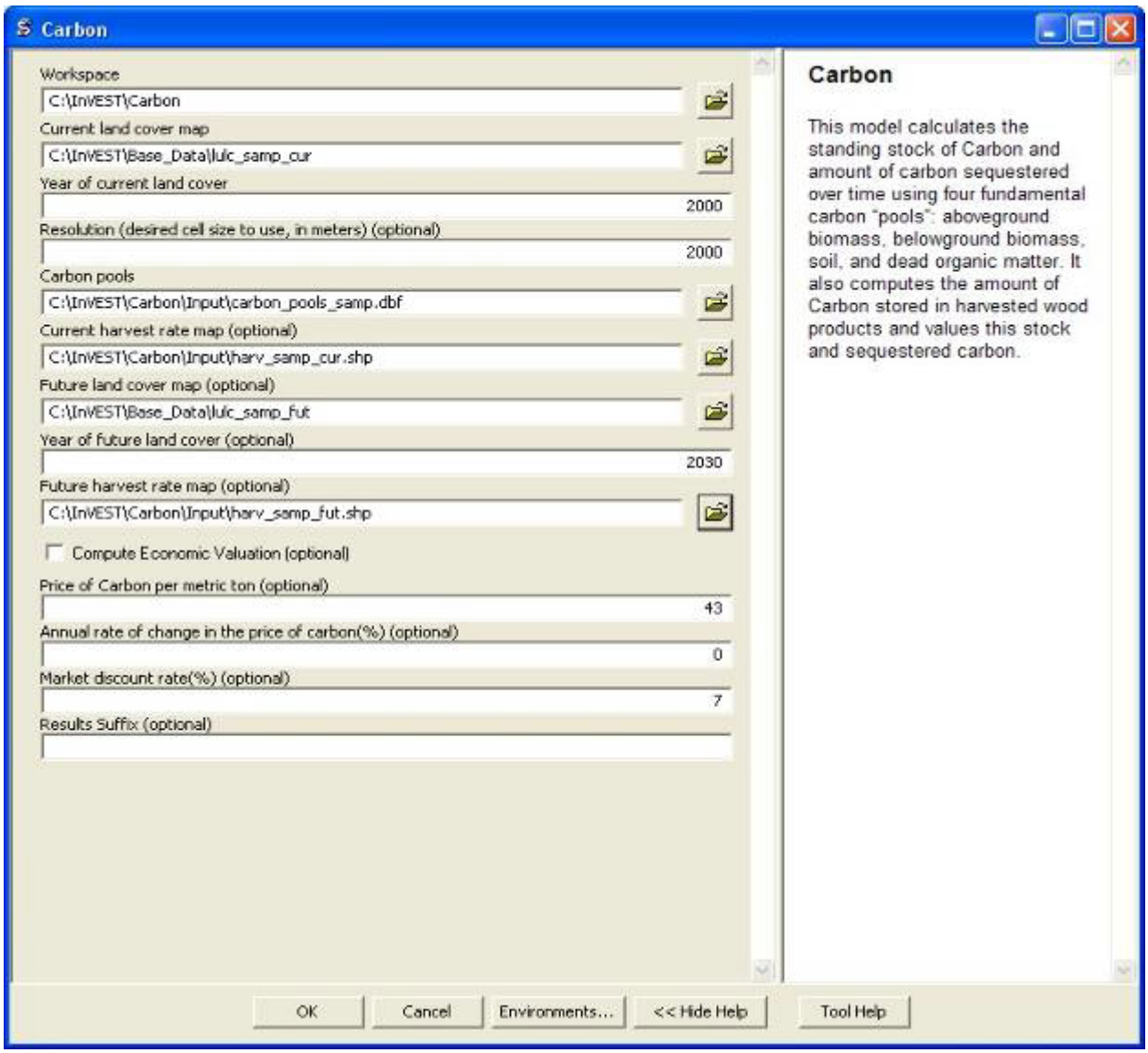
- Open an ARCMAP document to run your model.

- Find the INVEST toolbox in ARCTOOLBOX. ARCTOOLBOX is normally open in ARCMAP, but if it is not, click on the ARCTOOLBOX symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you don’t see the InVEST toolbox and need instructions on how to add it.

- You can run this analysis without adding data to your map view, but usually it is recommended to view your data first and familiarize yourself. Add the data for this analysis to your map using the ADD DATA button and look at each file to make sure it is formatted correctly. Save your ARCMAP file as needed.

- Click once on the + sign on the left side of the INVEST toolbox to expand the list of tools. Double-click on Carbon.

Carbon tool dialog


Carbon
Workspace
C:\InVEST\Carbon
Current land cover map
C:\InVEST\Base_Data\luic_samp_cur
Year of current land cover
2000
Resolution (desired cell size to use, in meters) (optional)
2000
Carbon pools
C:\InVEST\Carbon\Input\carbon_pools_samp.dbf
Current harvest rate map (optional)
C:\InVEST\Carbon\Input\harv_samp_cur.shp
Future land cover map (optional)
C:\InVEST\Base_Data\luic_samp_fut
Year of future land cover (optional)
2030
Future harvest rate map (optional)
C:\InVEST\Carbon\Input\harv_samp_fut.shp
Compute Economic Valuation (optional)
Price of Carbon per metric ton (optional)
43
Annual rate of change in the price of carbon(%) (optional)
0
Market discount rate(%) (optional)
7
Results Suffix (optional)
Carbon
This model calculates the standing stock of Carbon and amount of carbon sequestered over time using four fundamental carbon "pools": aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, soil, and dead organic matter. It also computes the amount of Carbon stored in harvested wood products and values this stock and sequestered carbon.
OK
Cancel
Environments...
<< Hide Help
Tool Help

- An interface will pop up like the one above. The tool shows default file names, but you can use the file buttons to browse instead to your own data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. In addition, refer to the *Data Needs* section above for information on data formats.

- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires you to enter some data. If you choose to run the optional economic valuation, all optional inputs below the checkbox become required.

- After you've entered all values as required, click on OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue".

- Upon successful completion of the model, you will see new folders in your workspace called "intermediate" and "output." These folders contain several raster grids. These grids are described in the *Interpreting Results* section.

- Load the output grids into ARCMAP using the ADD DATA button.

- You can change the symbology of a layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the table of contents, selecting PROPERTIES, and then SYMBOLOGY. There are many options here to change the way the file appears in the map.

- You can also view the attribute data of output files by right clicking on a layer and selecting OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

Interpreting Results

Parameter log

Each time the model is run, a text file will appear in the output folder. The file will list the parameter values for that run and will be named according to the service, the date and time, and the suffix.

Final results

Final results are found in the "Output" folder within the working directory set up for this model.

- ***tot_C_cur***: This file shows the *amount of carbon currently stored* in Mg in each grid cell at the chosen resolution. This is a sum of all of the carbon pools you have included data for (above ground, below ground, soil, dead material, and harvested wood product). The lowest value can be 0 (for example, paved areas if you don't include the soil beneath the pavement). Examine this map to see where high and low values fall. Is this what you would expect given the current land use and land cover? If not, check your input files.
- ***tot_C_fut***: This file shows the *total amount of carbon that will be stored* in each parcel under your future landscape scenario. It is a sum of all the carbon pools for which you have included data. The values are in Mg per grid cell. Again, the lowest value can be 0.
- ***sequest:*** This file maps the *difference in carbon* stored between the future landscape and the current landscape – or the carbon that is sequestered during the entire given time period (i.e. this is a rate per the total time period elapsed, *yr_fut – yr_cur*, not per year). The values are in Mg per grid cell. In this map some values may be negative and some positive.

Positive values indicate sequestered carbon, whereas negative values indicate carbon that was lost. Areas with large negative or positive values should have the biggest changes in LULC or harvest rates. Remember that carbon emissions due to management activities (tractors burning fuel, fertilizer additions, etc.) on a parcel are NOT included in this assessment.

- ***value_stor:*** This file maps the *economic value of carbon stock* in the current landscape. The relative differences between parcels should be identical to *tot_C_cur*, but the values are in US dollars per grid cell instead of Mg per grid cell. Some of the values may be quite high compared to the sequestration value, but keep in mind that currently there is not a market for carbon storage as modeled in this map.
- ***value_seq:*** This file maps the *economic value of carbon sequestered* (between the current and the future landscape dates, *yr_cur* and *yr_fut*). The relative differences between parcels should be similar (but not identical) to *sequest*, but the values are in dollars per grid cell instead of Mg per grid cell. As with *sequest*, values may be negative, indicating the cost of carbon emissions from LULC changes to that parcel.

Intermediate results

These files independently map each of the five carbon pools that contribute to the final results for both current and future landscapes. Examining these results can help you determine which of the carbon pools are changing the most between your current and future landscapes and can help you identify areas where your data may need correcting. The unit for each of these pool outputs is Mg per grid cell. *Biomass_HWP_cur* and *Biomass_HWP_fut* are both measured in Mg dry matter per grid cell and *Vol_HWP_cur* and *Vol_HWP_fut* are both measured in m^3 of wood per grid cell. *lc_res_cur* and *lc_res_fut* give the current and future LULC maps at the resolution chosen with the model interface. Finally, *Carbon_dateandtime_suffix*.txt is a text file that summarizes the parameter data you chose when running the Carbon Storage and Sequestration Model. The text file's name includes "*dateandtime*" which means that the data and time is stamped into the text's file name. The text file's name also includes a "*suffix*" term that you choose.

- *C_above_cur* – the current carbon stock for the aboveground pool
- *C_above_fut* – the carbon stock for the aboveground pool for the future scenario
- *C_below_cur* – the current carbon stock for the belowground pool
- *C_below_fut* – the carbon stock for the belowground pool for the future scenario
- *C_soil_cur* – the current carbon stock in soil
- *C_soil_fut* – the carbon stock in soil for the future scenario
- *C_dead_cur* – the current carbon stock in dead organic matter
- *C_dead_fut* – the carbon stock in dead organic matter for the future scenario
- *C_HWP_cur* – carbon stored in harvested wood products for current land cover
- *C_HWP_fut* – carbon stored in harvested wood products for future scenario.
- *Bio_HWP_cur* – biomass of wood removed since "start_date" for current land cover
- *Bio_HWP_fut* – biomass of wood removed since "start_date" for future land cover
- *Vol_HWP_cur* – volume of wood removed since "start_date" for current land cover
- *Vol_HWP_fut* – volume of wood removed since "start_date" for future land cover
- *lc_res_cur* – the current LULC map at the resolution chosen by the user.
- *lc_res_fut* – the future LULC map at the resolution chosen by the user.

- *Carbon_dateandtime_suffix*.txt – a text file that summarizes the parameter data used to run the Carbon Storage and Sequestration Model.

Appendix: data sources

This is a rough compilation of data sources and suggestions for finding, compiling, and formatting data. This section should be used for ideas and suggestions only. This section is updated as new data sources and methods become available.

1. Land use/land cover map

The simplest categorization of LULCs on the landscape involves delineation by land cover only (e.g., cropland, temperate conifer forest, prairie). Several global and regional land cover classifications are available (e.g., Anderson et al. 1976), and often detailed land cover classification has been done for the landscape of interest.

A slightly more sophisticated LULC classification could involve breaking relevant LULC types into broad age categories (e.g., forest of age 0-10 years, 11-20, 21-40, etc.). This would allow separate estimates of carbon storage for different ages. In scenarios, parcels can move from one age class to the next, crudely capturing changes in carbon storage over time. This approach requires more information, however, including carbon storage estimates for each age class for all modeled pools of carbon.

A still more detailed classification could stratify LULC types by variables known to affect carbon storage within a given LULC type (e.g., montane forest 800-1000m, montane forest 1001-1200m, etc.). Rainfall, temperature, and elevation all typically influence carbon storage and sequestration (e.g., Jenny 1980, Coomes *et al*. 2002, Raich *et al*. 2006). If data are available to estimate carbon storage at different elevations, or at different levels of rainfall, temperature or other climate variables, model results will be substantially more accurate. This will typically take a large sample of plot estimates of carbon storage.

2. Carbon stocks

Carbon storage data should be set equal to the average carbon storage values for each LULC class. The ideal data source for all carbon stocks is a set of local field estimates, where carbon storage for all relevant stocks has been directly measured. These can be summarized to the LULC map, including any stratification by age or other variable. If these data are not available, however, there are several general data sources that can be used.

Note that several sources, including IPCC (2006), report in units of biomass, while InVEST uses mass of elemental carbon. To convert metric tons of biomass to metric tons of C, multiply by a conversion factor, which varies typically from 0.43 to 0.51. Conversion factors for different major tree types and climatic regions are listed in Table 4.3 on page 4.48 of IPCC (2006).

2.1. Carbon stored in aboveground biomass

A good but very general source of data for carbon storage is the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's (IPCC) 2006 methodology for determining greenhouse gas inventories in the Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) sector (http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/2006gl/vol4.html, IPCC 2006). To use this set of information from the IPCC, you must know your site's climate domain and region; use data from Table 4.1 on page 4.46 and a digital copy of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations' (FAO) eco-region map (http://www.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/main.home) to figure that out. Tables 5.1 through 5.3 (p. 5.9) of IPCC (2006) give estimates for aboveground biomass in agriculture land with perennial woody biomass (e.g., fruit orchards, agroforestry, etc.). Tables 4.7, 4.8, and 4.12 give aboveground biomass estimates for natural and plantation forest types. Recently, Ruesch and Gibbs (2008) mapped the IPCC (2006) aboveground biomass carbon storage data given year 2000 land cover data.

Other general sources of carbon storage estimates can be found. For example, Grace et al. (2006) estimate the average aboveground carbon storage (leaf + wood) for major savanna ecosystems around the world (Table 1). Houghton (2005) gives aboveground carbon storage for natural and plantation forest types, by continent (Tables 1 and 3). Brown et al. (1989) give aboveground biomass estimates for tropical broadleaf forests as a function of land-use: undisturbed, logged, nonproductive (Table 7).

Region-specific sources of carbon storage data are also available. Those we've found include:

- **Latin America**: Malhi *et al*. (2006) report aboveground biomass volumes for 227 lowland forest plots in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guinea, Guyana, Panama, Peru, and Venezuela. Nascimento and Laurance (2002) estimate aboveground carbon stocks in twenty 1-ha plots of Amazonian rainforest. Tiessen *et al*. (1998) find aboveground carbon stocks for the Brazilian savanna types Caatingas and Cerrados.

- **Africa**: Zhang and Justice (2001) report aboveground carbon stocks for major forest and shrub LULC types for central African countries. Tiessen *et al*. (1998) estimates total aboveground biomass of degraded savanna in Senegal. Makundi (2001) reports mean annual incremental growth for three forest plantation types in Tanzania. Malimbwi et al. (1994) estimates aboveground carbon stocks in the miombo woodlands of Kitungalo Forest Reserve Tanzania. Munishi and Shear (2004) report aboveground carbon stocks in the Afromontane rain forests of the Eastern Arc Mountains of Tanzania. Glenday (2006) estimates aboveground carbon stocks for 3 forest types in the Kakamega National Forest of western Kenya.

- **North America**: Smith *et al*. (2006) estimate aboveground carbon stocks for all major forest types in the US.

- The Carbon On Line Estimator (http://ncasi.uml.edu/COLE/) is a tool for calculating carbon characteristics in **U.S. forests** based on USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory & Analysis and Resource Planning Assessment data. With this tool, carbon characteristics can

be examined at the scale of counties. Using the variables tab, aboveground, belowground, soil, or dead wood carbon pools can be selected.

- Other: Coomes *et al*. (2002) estimate aboveground carbon stocks for native shrubland and forest types in **New Zealand**.

One can also calculate aboveground biomass (and therefore carbon stocks) from *timber inventories*, which are often done by forestry ministries on a set of plots. Use the following formula to estimate the aboveground carbon stock in a forest stand that has been inventoried for its merchantable volume, $VOB \times WD \times BEF \times CF$ where *VOB* is the per-hectare volume of trees in cubic meters measured from tree stump to crown point (the merchantable portion of the tree), *WD* is the wood density of trees (dry biomass per unit of tree volume), *BEF* is the ratio of total aboveground dry biomass to dry biomass of inventoried volume, and *CF* is the ratio of elemental carbon to dry biomass, by mass (Brown 1997). The biomass expansion factor (BEF) accounts for C stored in all other portions of the tree aboveground (e.g., branches, bark, stems, foliage, etc; the non-merchantable portions of the tree). In most cases *WD* for a plot is approximated with values for dominant species. Brown (1997) provides a table of *WD* values for many tree species in Appendix 1 of section 3 and a method for calculating *BEF* (Equation 3.1.4). See ECCM (2007) for an application of this FAO method to forest inventory data from eastern Tanzania. IPCC (2006) also presents estimates of ($WD \times BEF$) where BEF values for hardwood, pine, conifer, and natural forest stands by eco-region are given in Table 4.5 and *WD* values for many species are given in Tables 4.13 and 4.14. (Use the BCEF values in Table 4.5 that are subscripted by *S*.) Finally, Brown *et al*. (1989) give *BEF* for tropical broadleaf forests under three land uses: undisturbed, logged, and nonproductive.

Brown (1997) attaches several caveats to the use of the above equation. First, the equation $VOB \times WD \times BEF \times CF$ is designed for *inventoried stands that are closed* as opposed to open (forests with sparser canopy coverage such as oak savanna). Second, *VOB* estimates should be a function of *all tree species* found in the stand, not just the economically most valuable wood. Third, trees with *diameters as low as 10 centimeters* at breast height (DBH = 10) need to be included in the inventory if this aboveground biomass carbon equation is to be as accurate as possible. Brown (2002) also notes that the use of a single BEF value is a simplification of the actual biomass growth process.

These caveats lead Brown (2002) to recommend the use of allometric biomass equations to estimate woody aboveground biomass if available. These equations give the estimated relationship between a stand's distribution of different-sized trees and the stand's aboveground biomass. Brown (1997) and Brown and Schroeder (1999) provide general aboveground biomass allometric equations for all global eco-regions and the eastern US, respectively. Cairns *et al*. (2000) provide aboveground biomass allometric equations for LULC types in southern Mexico. Nascimento and Laurance (2002) estimate Amazonian rainforest aboveground biomass using allometric curves. The use of these equations requires knowledge of the distribution of tree size in a given stand.

Some researchers have made use of these equations a bit easier by first relating a stand's distribution of different-sized trees to its age and then mapping the relationship between age and aboveground biomass (i.e., $VOB \times WD \times BEF$). For example, Silver et al. (2000) have estimated

aboveground biomass as a function of stand age (i.e., years since afforestation/ reforestation) or previous LULC for native forest types in tropical ecosystems. Smith *et al*. (2006) take the transformation of allometric equations one step further by relating age to total biomass carbon (belowground plus aboveground) directly for various US forests.

When using IPCC data or other similar broad data sources, one final issue to consider is how the *level of anthropogenic disturbance affects carbon stocks*. The aboveground C stock of highly disturbed areas will likely be lower than the stocks of undisturbed areas. It is not clear what type of disturbance levels IPCC or other such sources assume when reporting aboveground biomass estimates. If forest disturbance is an issue in the demonstration site, LULC types should be stratified by levels of disturbance. For an example of such stratification see Table 2.5, page 14 of ECCM (2007). The effect of this disturbance on C storage in harvested wood products (HWPs) is discussed below.

Finally, we generally do ***not*** *treat aboveground herbaceous material as a carbon pool* (e.g., grass, flowers, non-woody crops). Our working assumption is that this material does not represent a potential source of long-term storage like woody biomass, belowground biomass, and soil. Herbaceous material in general recycles its carbon too quickly.

2.2. Carbon stored in belowground biomass

For LULC categories dominated by woody biomass, belowground biomass can be estimated roughly with the "root to shoot" ratio of belowground to aboveground biomass. Default estimates of the root to shoot ratio are given in Table 4.4 on p. 4.49 of IPCC (2006) by eco-region. Broad estimates of this ratio are also given in Section 3.5 of Brown (1997).

Some LULC types contain little to no woody biomass but substantial belowground carbon stocks (e.g., natural grasslands, managed grasslands, steppes, and scrub/ shrub areas). In these cases the root to shoot ratio described above does not apply. Belowground estimates for these LULC types are best estimated locally, but if local data are not available some global estimates can be used. The IPCC (2006) lists total biomass (aboveground plus belowground) and aboveground biomass for each climate zone in table 6.4 (p. 6.27). The difference between these numbers is a crude estimate of belowground biomass. . Recently, Ruesch and Gibbs (2008) mapped the IPCC (2006) aboveground biomass carbon storage data given year 2000 land cover data.

Several studies have compiled estimates of belowground biomass or root-to-shoot ratios for different habitat types. Among those we found:

- Grace *et al*. (2006) estimate the total average woody and herbaceous root biomass for major savanna ecosystems around the world (Table 1). Baer *et al*. (2002) and Tilman et al. (2006) estimate the C stored in the roots of plots restored to native C4 grasses in Nebraska and Minnesota, U.S. respectively, as a function of years since restoration (see Table 2 in Baer et al. (2002) and Figure 1D in Tilman et al. (2006)).

- Cairns *et al*. (1997) survey root-to-shoot ratios for LULC types across the world. Munishi and Shear (2004) use a ratio of 0.22 for Afromontane forests in the Eastern Arc forests of Tanzania. Malimbwi *et al*. (1994) use 0.20 for miombo woodlands in the same area of

Tanzania. Coomes *et al*. (2002) use 0.25 for shrublands in New Zealand. Gaston *et al*. (1998) report a root-to-shoot ratio of 1 for African grass / shrub savannas.

2.3. Carbon stored in soil

If local or regional soil C estimates are not available, default estimates can be looked up from IPCC (2006) for agricultural, pasture, and managed grasslands. Table 2.3 of IPCC (2006) contains estimates of soil carbon stocks by soil type, assuming these stocks are at equilibrium and have no active land management. For cropland and grassland LULC types, this default estimate can be multiplied by management factors, listed in Tables 5.5 and 6.2 of IPCC (2006). For all other LULC types and their related management schemes, the IPCC (2006) assumes no management factors.

There are alternative global-level sources of soil carbon data. Post *et al*. (1982) report carbon stocks in the first meter of soil by Holdridge Life Zone Classification System (GIS map of these Zones available at http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/seg/cdroms/ged_iia/datasets/a06/lh.htm). Silver *et al*. (2000) have estimated soil carbon as a function of years since afforestation / reforestation for native forest types in tropical ecosystems. Grace et al. (2006) estimate the soil carbon for major savanna types around the world (Table 1). Detwiler (1986) lists soil carbon for tropical forest soils in Table 2.

Several region-specific studies also report soil carbon stocks. Those we've found include:

- **North America**: Smith *et al*. (2006) estimate soil C for every 5-year increment up to 125 years since afforestation/ reforestation for all major forest types and forest management practices in each region of the U.S. Others include McLauchlan *et al*. (2006); Tilman *et al*. (2006); Fargione *et al* (2008); Schuman et al. (2002); and Lal (2002).

- **Africa**: Houghton and Hackler (2006) give soil C for 5 LULC forest types (Rain Forest; Moist Forest Dry; Forest; Shrubland; and Montane Forest) in sub-Saharan Africa that have retained their natural cover and for forest areas that have been converted to croplands, shifting cultivation, and pasture. Vagen *et al*. (2005) provides soil C estimates for various LULC types in sub-Saharan Africa.

- **South America**: Bernoux et al. (2002) estimated soil C stocks to a depth of 30 cm for different soil type-vegetation associations in Brazil. For example, the soil C stock in HAC soils under 14 different land cover categories, including Amazon forest and Brazilian Cerrado, range from 2 to 116 kg C m^{-2}.

Important Note: In most research that estimates carbon storage and sequestration rates on a landscape, soil pool measures only include soil organic carbon (SOC) in *mineral soils* (Post and Kwon 2000). However, if the ecosystem being modeled has a lot of organic soils (e.g. wetlands or paramo), it is critical to add this component to the mineral soil content. In landscapes where the conversion of wetlands into other land uses is common, carbon releases from organic soils should also be tracked closely (IPCC 2006).

2.4. Carbon stored in dead organic matter

If local or regional estimates of carbon stored in dead organic matter aren't available, default values from the IPCC (2006) can be assigned. Table 2.2 (p. 2.27) gives default carbon stocks for leaf litter in forested LULC types. For non-forested types, litter is close to 0. Grace *et al*. (2006) estimate the average carbon stored in litter for major savanna ecosystems around the world (Table 1). It is not clear if their total "above-ground biomass" estimates include deadwood or not. Deadwood stocks are more difficult to estimate in general, and we have located no default data sources.

Regional estimates:

- **United States**: Smith *et al*. (2006) estimate carbon storage in litter (referred to as "Forest Floor" C in the document) and dead wood (the aggregate of C pools referred to as "Standing Dead Trees" and "Down Dead Wood" in the document) for all major forest types and forest management practices in each region of the U.S. as a function of stand age.

- **South America**: Delaney *et al*. (1998) estimate carbon stored in standing and down dead wood in 6 tropical forests of Venezuela. According to the authors, deadwood is typically 1/10 the amount of biomass as aboveground vegetation.

3. Decay rates for harvested wood products

For more information on the decay of carbon in HWP and methods for estimating it, see Skog *et al*. (2004), Green *et al*. (2006), Miner (2006), Smith *et al*. (2006), chapter 12, "Harvested Wood Products," of IPCC (2006), and Dias *et al*. (2007).

4. Harvest rates and dates harvest began

For an example of estimating carbon content in harvested wood products, we can use data from Makundi (2001). Assume that a softwood plantation in Tanzania has been producing timber for 50 years on a 5-hectare plot. Further, the rotation period for this type of plantation is 25 years (Makundi 2001). Assume an even age forestry operation. Therefore, every year, 2 hectares with 25-year old trees are clear-cut. The mean annual increment of the softwood's aboveground biomass is 17.82 Mg ha^{-1} yr^{-1} (Makundi 2001). Thus 2 hectares x 25 years x 17.82 Mg ha^{-1} yr^{-1} = 891 Mg of timber has been removed from the plantation annually for 50 years. If we assume the carbon content of the plantation's trees are 0.48 (Makundi 2001) then 891 x 0.48 = 427.68 metric tons of C are in the aboveground biomass of forest stand removed each year from the plantation or 8.6 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}.

Ascertaining dates in which harvesting began in each parcel may be difficult. If it is, you could assign an early date of initial harvest to all parcels, which essentially assumes that the carbon in the pool of harvested wood products has reached steady state (i.e., does not change year to year). Assume a date such that the time since first harvest is more than twice the half-life of carbon in the harvested wood products (e.g., if the half life of carbon in wood products is 20 years, choose a date of initial harvest that is 40 years before the current landscape map used.

5. Economic inputs: carbon price and discount rates

Recent estimates suggest that the social cost of carbon (SCC), or the marginal damage associated with the release of an additional Mg of C into the atmosphere, ranges from $32 per metric ton of C (Nordhaus 2007a) to $326 per metric ton of C (Stern 2007) in 2010 US dollars. The value of this damage can also be considered the monetary benefit of an avoided release. Tol (2009) provides a comprehensive survey of SCC estimates, reporting median values of $66 and $130 per metric ton in 2010 US dollars (values differ because of different assumptions regarding discounting of time). Other recent estimates can be found in Murphy *et al*. (2004), Stainforth *et al*. (2005), and Hope (2006).

An alternative method for measuring the cost of an emission of a metric ton of C is to set the cost equal to the least cost alternative for sequestering that ton. The next best alternative currently is to capture and store the C emitted from utility plants. According to Socolow (2005) and Socolow and Pacala (2007), the cost of this technology per metric ton captured and stored is approximately $100.

Finally, while we do not recommend this approach, market prices can be used to set the price of sequestered carbon. The Chicago Climate Exchange (CCX) and the European Climate Exchange (ECX) provide values ($24 and $153 per metric ton of C on May 14, 2008, respectively). The difference in these prices illustrates the problem with using markets to set values. The CCX and ECX are different in structure, scope, and the public policy that grounds each institution. This leads to different market fundamentals, and different prices for reasons unrelated to the social value of carbon sequestration. We do not recommend the use of market prices because they usually only apply to "additional" carbon sequestration; sequestration above and beyond some baseline sequestration rate. Further, carbon credit values from carbon markets such as the Chicago or European Climate Exchanges are largely a function of various carbon credit market rules and regulations and do not necessarily reflect the benefit to society of a sequestered ton of carbon. Therefore, correct use of market prices would require estimating a baseline rate for the landscape of interest, mapping additional sequestration, and then determining which additional sequestration is eligible for credits according to market rules and regulations. If the user is specifically interested in such an analysis please contact the InVEST team on the message boards at http://invest.ecoinformatics.org

We discount the value of future payments for carbon sequestration to reflect society's preference for payments that occur earlier rather than later. The US Office of Management and Budget recommends a 7% per annum market discount rate for US-based projects (OMB 1992). Discount rates vary for other parts of the world. The Asian Development Bank uses a rate of 10% to 12% when evaluating projects (http://www.adb.org/Documents/Guidelines/Eco_Analysis/discount_rate.asp). Canada and New Zealand recommend 10% for their projects (Abusah and de Bruyn 2007).

Some economists believe that a market or consumption discount rate of 7% to 12% is too high when dealing with the climate change analysis. Because climate change has the potential to severely disrupt economies in the future, the preference of society to consume today at the expense of both climate stability in the future and future generations' economic opportunities is seen as unethical by some (Cline 1992, Stern 2007). According to this argument, analyses of the effects of climate change on society and policies designed to reduce climate change should use low discount

rates to encourage greater GHG emission mitigation and therefore compensate for the potentially severe damages incurred by future generations (e.g., r = 0.014 in Stern (2007)). Recent government policies in several countries have supported the use of a very low discount rate for certain long-term projects (Abusah and de Bruyn 2007).

The carbon discount rate, which reflects the greater climatic impact of carbon sequestered immediately over carbon sequestered in the future, is discussed in Adams *et al*. (1999), Plantinga *et al*. (1999), Feng 2005, and Nelson *et al*. (2008).

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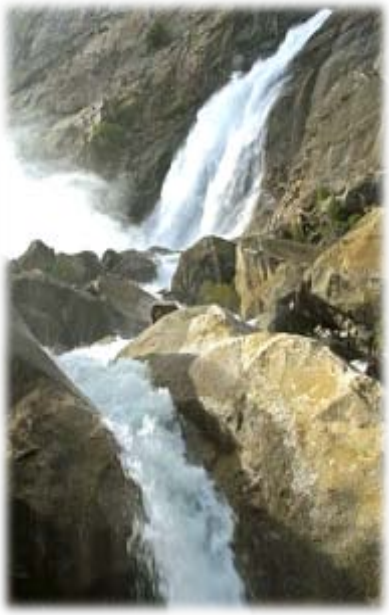
RESERVOIR HYDROPOWER PRODUCTION

Summary

Hydropower accounts for twenty percent of worldwide energy production, most of which is generated by reservoir systems. InVEST estimates the annual average quantity and value of hydropower produced by reservoirs, and identifies how much water yield or value each part of the landscape contributes annually to hydropower production. The model has three components: water yield, water consumption, and hydropower valuation. The first two components use data on average annual precipitation, annual reference evapotranspiration and a correction factor for vegetation type, soil depth, plant available water content, land use and land cover,, root depth, elevation, saturated hydraulic conductivity, and consumptive water use. The valuation model uses data on hydropower market value and production costs, the remaining lifetime of the reservoir, and a discount rate. The biophysical models do not consider surface – ground water interactions or the temporal dimension of water supply. The valuation mode assumes that energy pricing is static over time.



Introduction

The provision of fresh water is an ecosystem service that contributes to the welfare of society in many ways, including through the production of hydropower, the most widely used form of renewable energy in the world. Most hydropower production comes from watershed-fed reservoir systems that generally deliver energy consistently and predictably. The systems are designed to account for annual variability in water volume, given the likely levels for a given watershed, but are vulnerable to extreme variation caused by land use and land cover (LULC) changes. LULC changes can alter hydrologic cycles, affecting patterns of evapotranspiration, infiltration, and water retention, and changing the timing and volume of water that is available for hydropower production (World Commission on Dams 2000; Ennaanay 2006).

Changes in the landscape that affect annual average water yield upstream of hydropower facilities can increase or decrease hydropower production capacity. Maps of where water yield used for hydropower is produced can help avoid unintended impacts on hydropower production or help direct land use decisions that wish to maintain power production, while balancing other uses such

as conservation or agriculture. Such maps can also be used to inform investments in restoration or management that downstream stakeholders, such as hydropower companies, make in hopes of improving or maintaining water yield for this important ecosystem service. In large watersheds with multiple reservoirs for hydropower production, areas upstream of power plants that sell to a higher value market will have a higher value for this service. Maps of how much value each parcel contributes to hydropower production can help managers avoid developments in the highest hydropower value areas, understand how much value will be lost or gained as a consequence of different management options, or identify which hydropower producers have the largest stake in maintaining water yield across a landscape.

The Model

The InVEST Reservoir Hydropower model estimates the relative contributions of water from different parts of a landscape, offering insight into how changes in land use patterns affect annual surface water yield and hydropower production.

Modeling the connections between landscape changes and hydrologic processes is not simple (e.g. WEAP model). The data required by the most sophisticated models is difficult to come by. To accommodate more contexts, for which data is readily available data, InVEST maps and models the annual average water yield from a landscape used for hydropower production, rather than directly addressing the affect of LULC changes on hydropower failure as this process is closely linked to variation in water inflow on a daily to monthly timescale. Inste ad, InVESTcalculates the relative contribution of each land parcel to annual average hydropower production and the value of this contribution in terms of energy production. The net present value of hydropower production over the life of the reservoir also can be calculated by summing discounted annual revenues.

How it works

Water Yield Model

The model runs on a gridded map of regular cells (called raster format in GIS). It estimates the quantity and value of water used for hydropower production from each pixel. It has three components, which run sequentially in InVEST. First, it determines the amount of water running off each pixel as the precipitation less the fraction of the water that undergoes evapotranspiration. The model does not differentiate between surface, subsurface and baseflow, but assumes that all water yield from a pixel reaches the point of interest via one of these pathways. Second, it calculates the proportion of surface water that is used for hydropower production by subtracting the surface water that is consumed for other uses. Third, it estimates the energy produced by the water reaching the hydropower reservoir and the value of this energy over the reservoir's lifetime.

The water yield model is based on the Budyko curve and annual average precipitation. First, we determine annual water yield (Y_{jx}) for each pixel on the landscape (indexed by x = 1,2,…,X) as follows:

$$Y_{xj} = \left(1 - \frac{AET_{xj}}{P_x}\right) \cdot P_x$$

where, AET_{xj} is the annual actual evapotranspiration on pixel x with LULC j and P_x is the annual precipitation on pixel x.

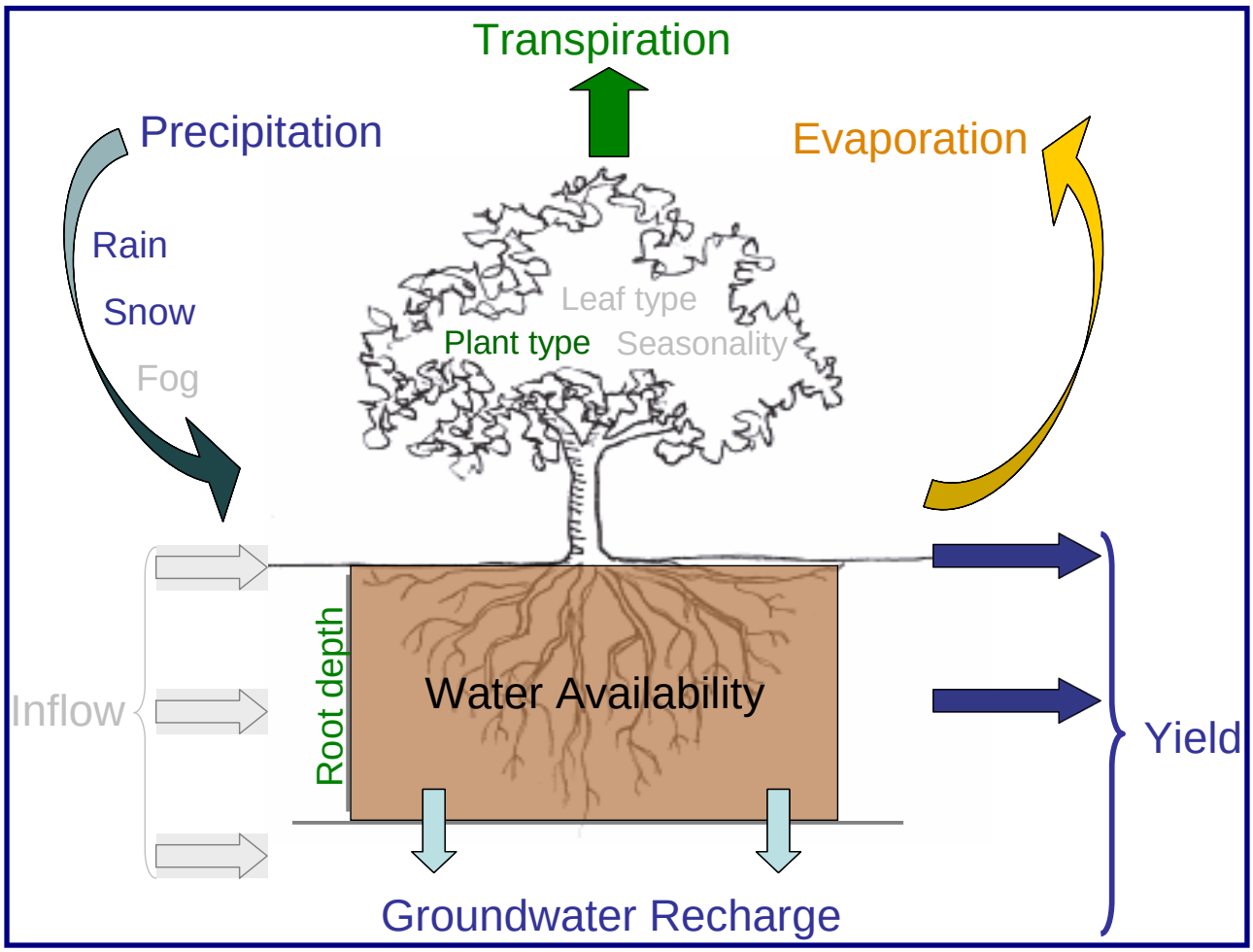


Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of the water balance model used in the hydropower production model. The water cycle is simplified, including only the parameters shown in color, and ignoring the parameters shown in gray. Yield, as calculated by this step of the model, is then adjusted for other consumptive uses and applied to hydropower energy and value estimates.

The evapotranspiration partition of the water balance, $\frac{AET_{xj}}{P_x}$, is an approximation of the Budyko curve developed by Zhang *et al*. (2001):

$$\frac{AET_{xj}}{P_x} = \frac{1 + \omega_x R_{xj}}{1 + \omega_x R_{xj} + \frac{1}{R_{xj}}}$$

where, R_{xj} is the dimensionless Budyko Dryness index on pixel *x* with LULC *j*, defined as the ratio of potential evapotranspiration to precipitation (Budyko 1974) and ω_x is a modified dimensionless ratio of plant accessible water storage to expected precipitation during the year. As defined by Zhang *et al*. (2001) ω_x is a non-physical parameter to characterize the natural climatic-soil properties.

$$\omega_x = Z \frac{AWC_x}{P_x}$$

where AWC_x is the volumetric (mm) plant available water content. The soil texture and effective soil depth define AWC_x, which establishes the amount of water that can be held and released in the soil for use by a plant, estimated as the product of the difference between field capacity and wilting point and the minimum of soil depth and root depth. *Z* is the Zhang constant that presents the seasonal rainfall distribution and rainfall depths. In areas of winter (December to April) rains, we expect to have Z in the order of 10, in areas with humid spread rain events throughout the year and summer rains the Z is in the order of 1. While we calculate ω_x, in some cases specific biome values already exist based on water availability and soil-water storage (Milly 1994, Potter et al. 2005, Donohue et al. 2007).

Finally, we define the Budyko dryness index, where R_{xj} values that are greater than one denote pixels that are potentially arid (Budyko 1974), as follows:

$$R_{xj} = \frac{k_{xj} \cdot ETo_x}{P_x}$$

where, ETo_x is the reference evapotranspiration from pixel *x* and k_{xj} is the plant evapotranspiration coefficient associated with the LULC *j* on pixel *x*. ETo_x represents an index of climatic demand while k_{xj} is largely determined by *x*'s vegetative characteristics (Allen *et al*. 1998).

Water Scarcity Model

The Water Scarcity Model calculates the water scarcity value along a flow path based on water yield and water consumptive use in a watershed(s) of interest. The user inputs how much water is consumed by each land use land cover type in a table format. For example, in an urban area, consumptive use can be calculated as the product of population density and per capita consumptive use. These land use-based values only relate to the *consumptive portion of demand*; some water use is non-consumptive such water used for cooling or other industrial processes that return water to the stream after use. For simplicity, each pixel in the watershed is either a "contributing" pixel, which contributes to hydropower production, or a "use" pixel, which uses water for other consumptive uses. This assumption implies that land use associated with consumptive uses will not contribute any yield for downstream use. The amount of water that actually reaches the reservoir

for dam *d* (realized supply) is defined as the difference between total water yield from the watershed and total consumptive use in the watershed.

$$V_{in} = Y - u_d$$

where u_d is the total volume of water consumed in the watershed upstream of dam *d* and *Y* is the total water yield from the watershed upstream of dam *d.*

If the user has observed data available on actual annual inflow rates to the reservoir for dam *d,* they can be compared to V_{in}. Divide the observed value by the estimated value to derive a calibration constant. This can then be entered in to the hydropower station data table and used to make power and value estimates actual rather than relative.

Hydropower Production and Valuation Model

The reservoir hydropower model estimates both the amount of energy produced given the estimated realized supply of water for hydropower production and the value of that energy. A present value dollar (or other currency) estimate is given for the entire remaining lifetime of the reservoir. Net present value can be calculated if hydropower production cost data are available. The energy produced or the revenue is then redistributed over the landscape based on the proportional contribution of each parcel to energy production. Final output maps show how much water yield from each pixel of the landscape contributes to hydropower production, and how much energy production or hydropower value can be attributed to that water yield over the lifetime of the reservoir.

At dam *d*, power is calculated using the following equation:

$$p_d = \rho . q_d . g . h_d$$

where p_d is power in watts, ρ is the water density (1000 Kg/m^3), q_d is the flow rate (m^3/s), *g* is the gravity constant (9.81 m/s^2), and h_d is the water height behind the dam at the turbine (m). In this model, we assume that the total annual inflow water volume is released equally and continuously over the course of each year.

The power production equation is connected to the water yield model by converting the annual inflow volume adjusted for consumption (V_{in}) to a per second rate. Since electric energy is normally measured in kilowatt-hours, the power p_d is multiplied by the number of hours in a year. All hydropower reservoirs are built to produce a maximum amount of electricity. This is called the energy production rating, and represents how much energy could be produced if the turbines are 100% efficient and all water that enters the reservoir is used for power production. In the real world, turbines have inefficiencies and water in the reservoir may be extracted for other uses like irrigation, retained in the reservoir for other uses like recreation, or released from the reservoir for non-power production uses like maintaining environmental flows downstream. To account for these inefficiencies and the flow rate and power unit adjustments, annual average energy production ε_d at dam *d* is calculated as follows:

$$\varepsilon_d = 0.00272.\beta.\gamma_d.h_d.Vin$$

where ε_d is hydropower energy production (KWH), β is the turbine efficiency coefficient (%), γ_d is the percent of inflow water volume to the reservoir at dam *d* that will be used to generate energy.

To convert ε_d, the annual energy generated by dam *d*, into a net present value (NPV) of energy produced (point of use value) we use the following,

$$NPVH_d = \left(p_e \varepsilon_d - TC_d\right) \times \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \frac{1}{(1+r)^t}$$

where TC_d is the total annual operating costs for dam *d*, p_e is the market value of electricity (per unit of energy consumed) provided by hydropower plant at dam *d*, T_d indicates the number of years present landscape conditions are expected to persist or the expected remaining lifetime of the station at dam *d* (set *T* to the smallest value if the two time values differ), and *r* is the market discount rate. The form of the equation above assumes that TC_d, p_e, ε_d, and are constant over time.

Once the total water yield contributing to annual energy production, the average amount of energy produced by that inflow volume each year, and the net present value of that energy production are determined, we need to allocate these results back to each pixel on the landscape, in proportion to their contribution to water yield.

First, we determine each pixel's contribution to the total water yield used for hydropower production as:

$$c_x = \frac{Y_{jx} - u_x}{V_{in}}$$

where Y_{jx} is the water yield at each pixel, u_x is the consumptive use of the pixel x, and V_{in} the inflow water into dam *d*. This output represents the ecosystem service in biophysical terms: provision of water for hydropower production. The following equations translate this level of ecosystem service provision into energy units and dollar value units.

Energy production over the lifetime of dam *d* is attributed to each pixel as follows:

$$\varepsilon_x = \left(T_d \varepsilon_d\right) \times c_x$$

where the first term in parentheses represents the electricity production over the lifetime of dam *d*. The second term represents the proportion of water used for hydropower production that comes from pixel *x*.

The value of each pixel for hydropower production over the lifetime of dam *d* is calculated similarly:

$$NPVH_x = NPVH_d \times c_x$$

Limitations and simplifications

The model has a number of limitations.

First, it is not intended for devising detailed water plans, but rather for evaluating how and where changes in a watershed may affect hydropower production for reservoir systems. It is based on annual averages, which neglect extremes and do not consider the temporal dimensions of water supply and hydropower production.

Second, the model assumes that all water produced in a watershed in excess of evapotranspiration arrives at the watershed outlet, without considering water capture by means other than primary human consumptive uses. Surface water – ground water interactions are entirely neglected, which may be a cause for error especially in areas of karst geology. The relative contribution of yield from various parts of the watershed should still valid.

Third, the model does not consider sub-annual patterns of water delivery timing. Water yield is a provisioning function, but hydropower benefits are also affected by flow regulation. The timing of peak flows and delivery of minimum operational flows throughout the year determines the rate of hydropower production and annual revenue. Changes in landscape scenarios are more likely to affect the timing of flows than the annual water yield, and are more of a concern when considering drivers such as climate change. Modeling the temporal patterns of overland flow requires detailed data that are not appropriate for our approach. Still, this model provides a useful initial assessment of how landscape scenarios may affect the annual delivery of water to hydropower production.

Fourth, the model describes consumptive demand by LULC type. In reality, water demand may differ greatly between parcels of the same LULC class. Much of the water demand may also come from large point source intakes, which are not represented by LULC class. The model simplifies water demand by distributing it over the landscape. For example, the water demand may be large for an urban area, and the model represents this demand by distributing it over the urban LULC class. The actual water supply intake, however, is likely much further upstream in a rural location. Spatial disparity in actual and modeled demand points may cause an incorrect representation in the scarcity output grid. The distribution of consumption is also simplified in the reallocation of energy production and hydropower value since it is assumed that water consumed along flow paths is drawn equally from every pixel upstream. As a result, water scarcity, energy production patterns, and hydropower values may be incorrectly estimated.

Fifth, a single variable (γ_d) is used to represent multiple aspects of water resource allocation, which may misrepresent the complex distribution of water among uses and over time.

Finally, the model assumes that hydropower production and pricing remain constant over time. It does not account for seasonal variation in energy production or fluctuations in energy pricing, which may affect the value of hydropower. Even if sub-annual production or energy prices change, however, the relative value between parcels of land in the same drainage area should be accurate.

Data needs

Here we outline the specific data used by the model. See the appendix for detailed information on data sources and pre-processing. For all raster inputs, the projection used should be defined, and the projection's linear units should be in meters. Nine data layers are required, and one is optional (required for valuation).

1. Digital elevation model (DEM) (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an elevation value for each cell. Make sure the DEM is corrected by filling in sinks, and if necessary 'burning' hydrographic features into the elevation model (recommended when you see unusual streams). See the Working with the DEM section of this manual for more information.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with elevation value for each cell given in meters above sea level.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**dem**

2. Soil depth (required). A GIS raster dataset with an average soil depth value for each cell. The soil depth values should be in millimeters.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file, with an average soil depth in millimeters for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **soil_depth**

3. Precipitation (required). A GIS raster dataset with a non-zero value for average annual precipitation for each cell. The precipitation values should be in millimeters.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with precipitation values for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **precip**

4. Plant Available Water Content (required). A GIS raster dataset with a plant available water content value for each cell. Plant Available Water Content fraction (PAWC) is the fraction of water that can be stored in the soil profile that is available for plants' use. PAWC is a fraction from 0 to 1.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with available water content values for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**pawc**

5. Average Annual Potential Evapotranspiration (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an annual average evapotranspiration value for each cell Potential evapotranspiration is the potential loss of water from soil by both evaporation from the soil and transpiration by healthy Alfalfa (or grass) if sufficient water is available. The evapotranspiration values should be in millimeters.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with potential evapotranspiration values for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**eto**

6. Land use/land cover (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an LULC code for each cell. The LULC code should be an integer.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with an integer LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.). These codes must match LULC codes in the Biophysical table.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**landuse_90**

7. Watersheds (required). A GIS raster dataset. This is a layer of watersheds such that each watershed contributes to a point of interest where hydropower production will be analyzed.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with unique integers for each watershed in the Value field
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **watersheds**

8. Biophysical Table (required). A table of land use/land cover (LULC) classes, containing data on biophysical coefficients used in this tool. NOTE: these data are attributes of each LULC class rather than attributes of individual cells in the raster map.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data\Water_Tables.mdb**Biophysical_Models**

Name: Table names should only have letters, numbers and underscores, no spaces
Format: .dbf or .mdb
Rows: Each row is an LULC class.
Columns: Each column contains a different attribute of each land use/land cover class, and must be named as follows:

a. *lucode* (Land use code): Unique integer for each LULC class (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.), must match the LULC raster above.
b. *LULC_desc*: Descriptive name of land use/land cover class (optional)
c. *root_depth:* The maximum root depth for vegetated land use classes, given in integer millimeters. Non-vegetated LULCs should be given a value of 0.
d. *etk:* The evapotranspiration coefficient for each LULC class, used to obtain potential evapotranspiration by using plant energy/transpiration characteristics to modify the reference evapotranspiration, which is based on alfalfa. Coefficients should be multiplied by 1000, so that the final *etk* values given in the table are integers ranging between 1 and 1500 (some crops evapotranspire more than alfalfa in some very wet tropical regions and where water is always available).

9. Demand Table (required). A table of LULC classes, showing consumptive water use for each landuse / landcover type. Consumptive water use is that part of water used that is incorporated into products or crops, consumed by humans or livestock, or otherwise removed from the watershed water balance.

Name: Table names should only have letters, numbers and underscores, no spaces
Format: .dbf or .mdb
Rows: Each row is a landuse / landcover class
Columns: Contain water demand values per LULC class and must be named as follows:

a. *lucode*: Integer value of land use/land cover class (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.), must match LULC raster, described above.
b. *demand*: The estimated average consumptive water use for each landuse / landcover type. Water use should be given in integer cubic meters per year.

10. Hydropower Table (optional – required for valuation). A table of hydropower stations with associated model values.

Name: Table names should only have letters, numbers and underscores, no spaces
Format: .dbf or .mdb
Rows: Each row is a hydropower station
Columns: Each column contains an attribute of each hydropower station, and must be named as follows:

a. *station_id*: Unique integer value for each watershed, which must correspond to values in the Watersheds raster.
b. *station_desc*: Name of hydropower station (optional)
c. *calib*: Annual water yield calibration constant. Multiplying this value by the total water supply for a watershed should give the actual total annual water supply observed/measured at the point of interest, corresponding to the 'wsupply' column of the Scarcity tool's 'water_scarcity.dbf' output. Floating point value.
d. *efficiency*: The turbine efficiency. A number to be obtained from the hydropower plant manager (floating point values generally 0.7 to 0.9)
e. *fraction*: The fraction of inflow water volume that is used to generate energy, to be obtained from the hydropower plant manager. Managers can release water without generating electricity to satisfy irrigation, drinking water, environmental demands. Floating point value.
f. *height*: The head, measured as the average annual effective height of water behind each dam at the turbine intake in meters. Floating point value.
g. *kw_price*: The price of one kilowatt-hour of power produced by the station, in dollars or other currency. Floating point value.
d. *cost*: Annual cost of running the hydropower station (maintenance and operations costs). Floating point value.
e. *time_span:* An integer value of either the expected lifespan of the hydropower station or the period of time of the land use scenario of interest. Used in net present value calculations.
f. *discount:* The discount rate over the time span, used in net present value calculations. Floating point value.

Running the Model

The Hydropower model maps the water yield, water consumption, energy produced by water yield and corresponding energy value over the landscape. This model is structured as a toolkit which has three tools. The first tool, **Water Yield**, calculates the surface water yield and actual evapotranspiration across the landscape. This output feeds into the next portion of the model, the **Water Scarcity** tool, which calculates water consumption, supply and realized supply, which is yield minus consumption. The third tool, **Valuation**, calculates energy production and the value of that energy, as it can be attributed to cells on the watershed landscape.

By running the tool, three folders will automatically be created in your workspace (you will have the opportunity to define this file path), "Intermediate", where temporary files are written, and which is deleted after each tool run; "Service", where results that show ecosystem services are saved; and "Output", where non-service biophysical results are saved.

Before running the Hydropower Model, make sure that the InVEST toolbox has been added to your ArcMap document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this manual. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*.

- Identify workspace

  If you are using your own data, you need to first create a workspace, or folder for the analysis data, on your computer hard-drive. The entire pathname to the workspace should not have any spaces. All your output files will be saved here. For simplicity, you may wish to call the folder for your workspace 'Hydropower' and create a folder in your workspace called "Input" and place all your input files here. It's not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but advisable so you can easily see the data you use to run your model.

  Or, if this is your first time using the tool and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/Hydropower. This folder will be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/Base_Data.

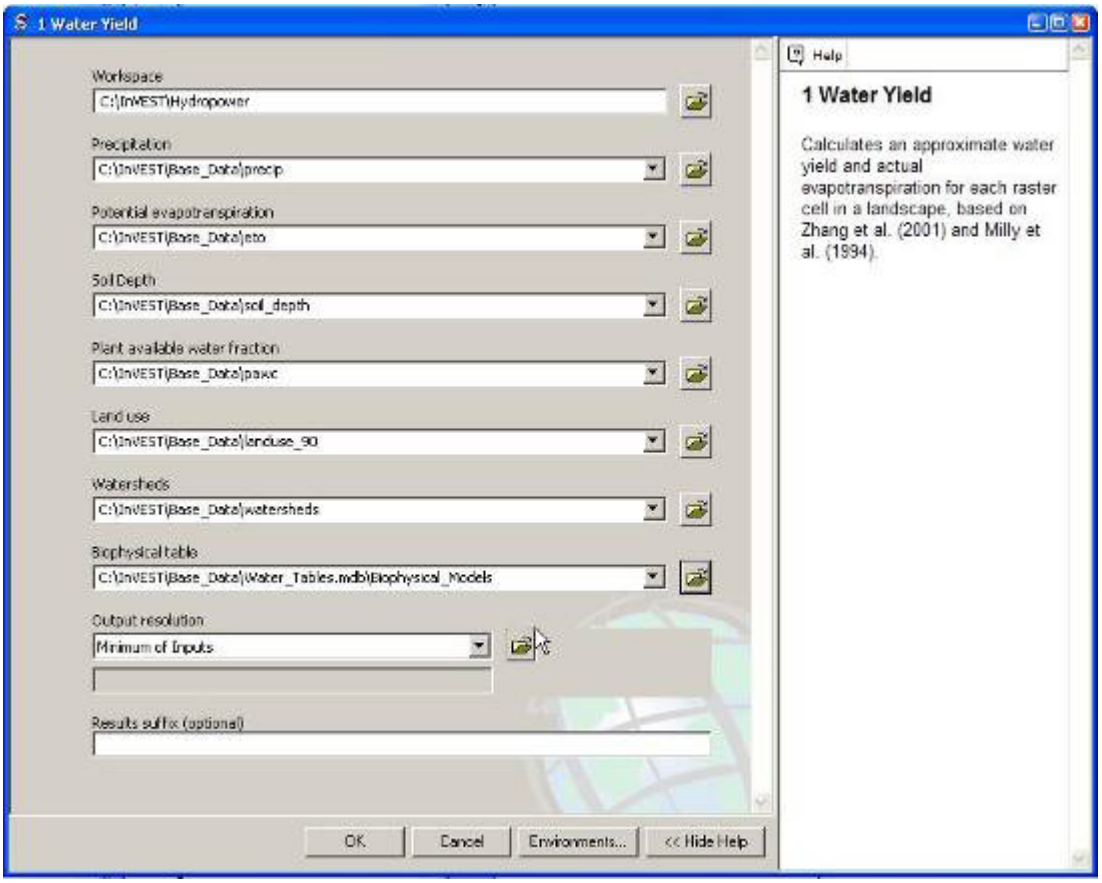
- Open an ArcMap document to run your model.

- Find the InVEST toolbox in ArcToolbox. ArcToolbox is normally open in ArcMap, but if it is not, click on the ArcToolbox symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you don't see the InVEST toolbox and need instructions on how to add it.

- You can run this analysis without adding data to your map view, but usually it is recommended to view your data first and get to know them. Add the data for this analysis to your map using the ADD DATA button and look at each file to make sure it is formatted correctly. Save your ArcMap file as needed.

- Click once on the plus sign on the left side of the InVEST toolbox to see the list of tools expand. Next, click on the plus sign next to the **Hydropower** toolset. Within the toolset are three tools, **Water Yield**, **Water Scarcity** and **Valuation**. You will need to run **Water Yield** first, **Water Scarcity** second and **Valuation** last, as each tool generates outputs that feed into the next.

- Double click on **Water Yield**. An interface will pop up like the one below. The tool shows default file names, but you can use the file buttons to browse instead to your own data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. ***Click Show Help if the description is not displayed***. In addition, refer to the *Data Needs* section above for information on data formats.



- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires you to enter some data.

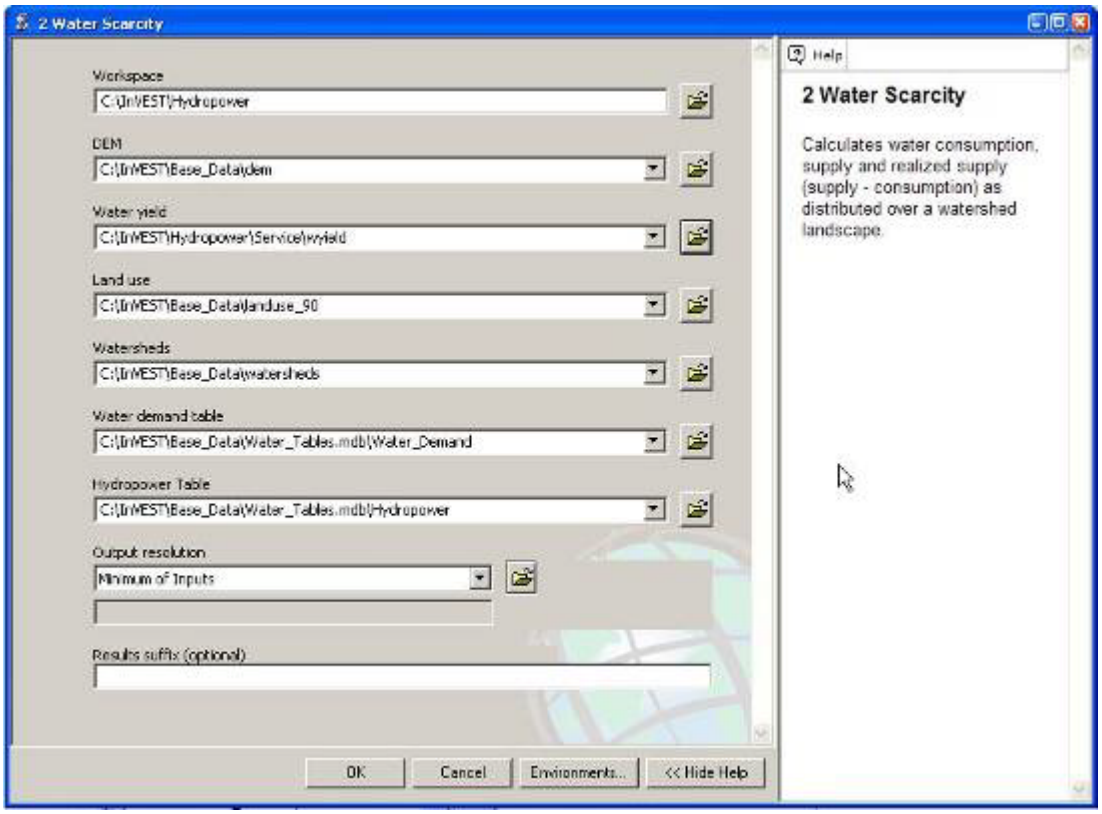
- After you've entered all values as required, click on OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue".

- Load the output grids into ArcMap using the ADD DATA button from either “Output” or “Service” folders.

- You can change the symbology of a layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the table of contents, selecting PROPERTIES, and then SYMBOLOGY. There are many options here to change the way the file appears in the map. You may change the coloring scheme for better visualization.

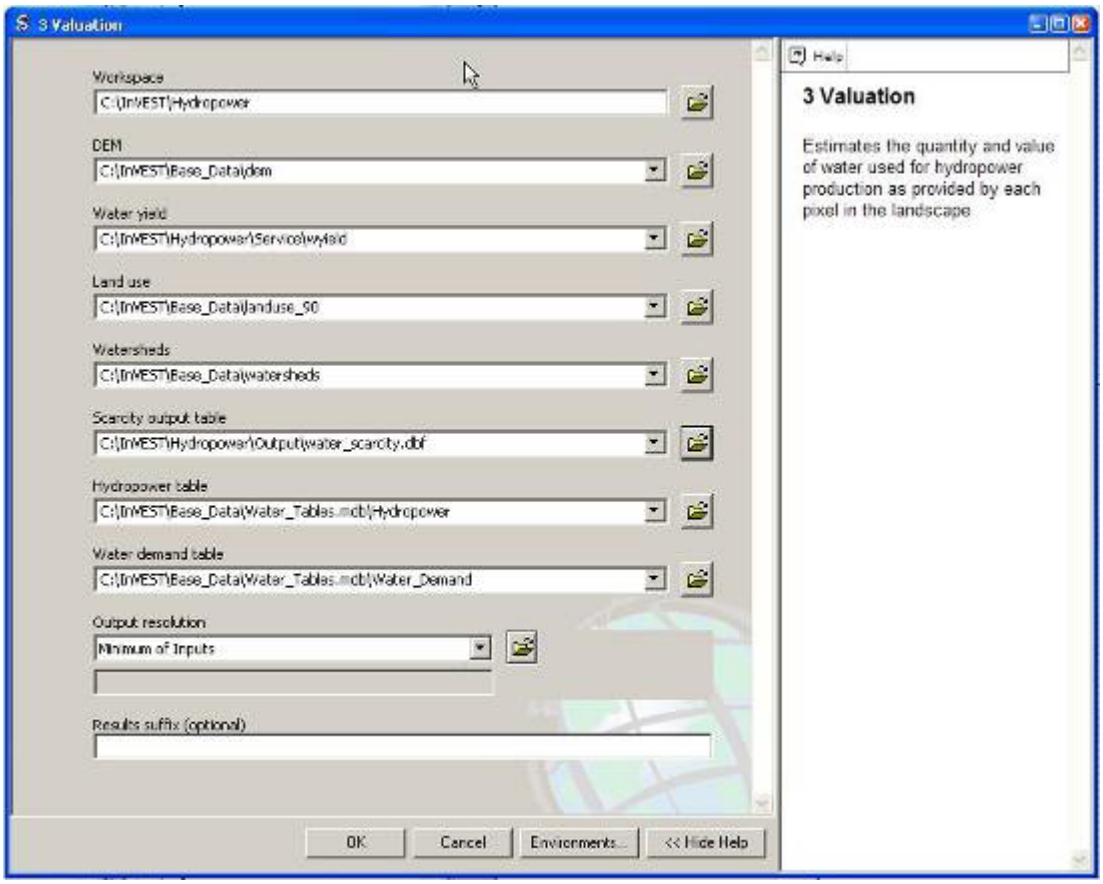
- You can also view the attribute data of output files by right clicking on a layer and selecting OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

- Now, run the tool **Water Scarcity**. One output from the Water Yield model, **wyield**, serves as an input to this model and is found in the service folder. The interface is below:



- When the script completes running, its results will be saved in the Output folder. A description of these results is in the next section. Load them into your ArcMap project, look at them, and check out the attribute table.

- Finally, run the tool **Valuation**. Two outputs from previous tools are required: **wyield** from Water Yield, and **water_scarcity.dbf** from Scarcity. The interface is below:



- When the script completes running, its results will be saved in the Service folder. A description of these results is in the next section. Load them into your ArcMap project, look at them, and check out the attribute table.

This model is open source, so you can edit the scripts to modify, update, and/or change equations by right clicking on the script's name and selecting "Edit…" The script will open in a text editor. After making changes, click File/Save to save your new script.

Interpreting Results

The following is a short description of each of the outputs from the Reservoir Hydropower Production tool (each of these output files is automatically saved in an "Output" or "Service" folder that is saved in the Working Directory that the user specifies):

1. Output\actual_et: Actual evapotranspiration grid. This is the annual average actual evapotranspiration fraction of precipitation (Actual Evapotranspiration / Precipitation) across the landscape; what is the fraction of precipitation that was evapotranspired?

2. Service\wyield: Water yield grid. The approximate absolute annual water yield across the landscape, calculated as the difference between precipitation and actual evapotranspiration on each land parcel. Given in mm.
3. Output\consump: Grid showing water consumption at each pixel, where each land use type is mapped to a corresponding value in the Demand Table consump field. (in $m^{3)}$
4. Output\supply: Cumulative water supply from all pixels upstream (in m^3)
5. Output\rsupply: Cumulative realized supply grid. This is a grid over the landscape that shows the difference between water supplied and water demanded from all pixels upstream (in m^3).
6. Output\water_scarcity.dbf: Table containing values for total water demand and supply for each watershed (in m^3)
7. **Service\hp_yield: THIS IS THE MAP OF THIS ECOSYSTEM SERVICE IN BIOPHYSICAL TERMS**. Grid showing the annual water yield at each pixel that contributes to hydropower production (in m^3)
8. **Service\hp_value: THIS IS THE MAP OF THIS ECOSYSTEM SERVICE IN ECONOMIC TERMS.** This grid shows the value of the landscape according to its ability to yield water for hydropower production over the specified time span. (in the currency given in the Hydropower table.)
9. **Service\hp_energy**: **THIS IS THE MAP OF THIS ECOSYSTEM SERVICE IN ENERGY PRODUCTION TERMS**. This grid shows the amount of energy produced by the hydropower station over the specified time span that can be attributed to each pixel based on its water yield contribution.
10. Service\hydropower_value.dbf: Table containing values for total water supply and demand for each watershed, plus the total energy produced, and the value of the energy produced, per hydropower station. Values as specified above.

The application of these results depends entirely on the objective of the modeling effort. Users may be interested in all of these results or a select one or two. If costing information is not available or of interest, the user may choose to use a unit cost of one so that they can simply compare biophysical results.

The first several model results provide insight into how water is distributed through the landscape. *Actual_ET* describes the evapotranspiration portion of the hydrologic cycle, showing how much water (precipitation) is lost annually to evapotranspiration across the watershed.
The *wyield* raster shows how much water is 'yielded' from each parcel of land. This raster can be used to determine which parcels of land are most important to total annual water yield – although at this step the user still will now know how much of that water is benefiting downstream users of any type. The consumptive use grid then shows how much water is used for consumptive activities (such as drinking, bottling, etc.) each year across the landscape. The rsupply (realized supply) grid calculates the difference between cumulative water yield and cumulative consumptive use. This grid demonstrates where the water supply for hydropower production is abundant and where it is most scarce. The user needs to remember that the consumptive use grid may not truly represent where water is taken, only where it is demanded. This may cause some misrepresentation of the scarcity in certain locations, but this grid offers a general sense of the water balance and whether there is a lack of or abundance of water in the area of interest.

The hp_yield, hp_energy and hp_value grids ares the most relevant model outputs for prioritizing the landscape for investments that wish to maintain water yield for hydropower production. The hp_value grid contains the most information for this purpose as it represents the revenue attributable to each parcel over the expected lifetime of the hydropower station, or the number of years that the user has chosen to model. This grid accounts for the fact that different hydropower stations within a large river basin may have different customers who pay different rates for energy production. If this is the case, the hp_value grid will show which portions of which watersheds contribute the highest value water for energy production. If energy values do not vary much across the landscape, the hp_yield and hp_energy outputs can be just as useful in planning and prioritization. Comparing any of these grids between landuse scenarios allows the user to understand how the role of the landscape may change under different management plans.

The hydropower output summary table presents the model results in terms of hydropower operation. The 'wyield' field provides the total volume of water that arrives at each hydropower plant every year, considering water yield and consumption. The 'consump' field provides the total volume of water that is consumed/demanded in each watershed upstream of the station. Total energy produced at each hydropower station is given in the 'energy' field, and the corresponding value of that energy is given in the 'value' field. This table provides a quick comparison between land use scenarios in a way that complements the spatial representation across the landscape. Ideally the output grids and summary table will be used together for comparison of land use and management scenarios.

Appendix: Data Sources

This is a rough compilation of data sources and suggestions about finding, compiling, and formatting data. This section should be used for ideas and suggestions only. We will continue to update this section as we learn about new data sources and methods.

a. Average annual precipitation

Average Annual Precipitation may be interpolated from existing rain gages, and global data sets from remote sensing models to account for remote areas. Precipitation as snow is included. If field data are not available, you can use coarse data from the freely available global data set developed by the Climatic Research Unit (www.cru.uea.ac.uk).
Within the United States, the PRISM group at Oregon State University provides free precipitation data at a 30-arcsecond resolution. See their website at http://www.prism.oregonstate.edu/ and navigate to '800 m Normals' to download data.

b. Average annual reference evapotranspiration (ET_o)

Reference evapotranspiration, ET_o, is the energy (expressed as a depth of water, e.g. mm) supplied by the sun (and occasionally wind) to vaporize water. Some global products are available on the internet, such as FAO Penman - Monteith method with limited climatic data as described in FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper 56 using data from the Climatic Research Unit (see http://mercury.ornl.gov/metadata/mastdc/html/nacp/daac.ornl.gov_data_bluangel_harvest_RGED_curtis_metadata_climate_monthly_evapotranspiration.html). Reference evapotranspiration

depends on elevation, latitude, humidity, and slope aspect. There are countless methodologies, which range in data requirements and precision.

If the use of this grid is not possible, develop monthly average grids of precipitation, and maximum and minimum temperatures (www.cru.uea.ac.uk), which need to incorporate the effects of elevation when interpolating from observation stations. Data to develop these monthly precipitation and temperatures grids follow the same process in the development of the 'Average Annual Precipitation' grid, with the added monthly disaggregated grids.

A simple way to determine reference Evapotranspiration is the 'modified Hargreaves'[1] equation, which generates superior results than the Pennman-Montieth when information is uncertain.

$$E = 0.T \times 0.0x R \times (T_a + 1)\times 0.(T - 0.8 DP)^{0.7}1$$

The 'modified Hargreaves' uses the average of the mean daily maximum and mean daily minimum temperatures (*Tavg* in oC), the difference between mean daily maximum and mean daily minimums (*TD*), *RA* is extraterrestrial radiation (*RA* in MJm-2d-1 and precipitation (*P* in mm per month), all of which can be relatively easily obtained. Temperature and precipitation data are often available from regional charts or direct measurement. Radiation data, on the other hand, is far more expensive to measure directly but can be reliably estimated from online tools, tables[2] or equations[3].

The Potential evapotranspiration could be also calculated monthly and annually using the Hamon equation (Hamon 1961, Wolock and McCabe 1999):

$$PET_{\text{Hamon}} = 13.97dD^2W_t$$

where d is the number of days in a month, D is the mean monthly hours of daylight calculated for each year (in units of 12 hours), and Wt is a saturated water vapor density term calculated by:

$$W_t = \frac{4.95e^{0.062T}}{100}$$

where T is the monthly mean temperature in degrees Celsius. Potential evapotranspiration was set to zero when mean monthly temperature was below zero. Then for each year during the time periods analyzed, the monthly calculated PET values at each grid cell were summed to calculate a map of the annual PET for each year.

c. Soil depth

Soil depth may be obtained from standard soil maps. Coarse, yet free global soil characteristic data is available at http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/seg/cdroms/reynolds/reynolds/reynolds.htm. In the United States free soil data is available from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's NRCS in the form of two datasets: SSURGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/ssurgo/ and STATSGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/statsgo/ . Where available SSURGO data should be used, as it is much more detailed than STATSGO. Where gaps occur in the SSURGO data, STATSGO can be used to fill in the blanks.

The soil depth should be calculated as the max depth of all horizons within a soil class component, and then a weighted average of the components should be estimated. This can be a tricky GIS analysis: In the US soil categories, each soil property polygon can contain a number of soil type

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1 Droogers P., and R.G. Allen. 2002. Estimating reference evapotranspiration under inaccurate data conditions. *Irrigation and Drainage Systems* 16: 33-45.

2 Hargreaves G.H. 1994. Defining and using reference evapotranspiration. *J. Irrig. and Drain.* Engrg., ASCE 120(6): 1132–1139.

3 Allen R.G., Pereira L.S., Raes D. & Smith M. 1998. *Crop evapotranspiration: Guidelines for computing crop requirements. Irrigation and Drainage Paper* No. 56, FAO, Rome, Italy.

components with unique properties, and each component may have different soil horizon layers, also with unique properties. Processing requires careful weighting across components and horizons. The Soil Data Viewer (http://soildataviewer.nrcs.usda.gov/), a free ArcMap extension from the NRCS, does this soil data processing for the user and should be used whenever possible. Ultimately, a grid layer must be produced. Data gaps, such as urban areas or water bodies need to be given appropriate values. Urban areas and water bodies can be thought of having zero soil depth. A good product would be to determine the minimum of depth to bedrock and typical water table depth.

d. Plant available water content (PAWC)

Plant available water content is a fraction obtained from most standard soil maps. It is defined as the difference between the fraction of volumetric field capacity and permanent wilting point. Often plant available water content is available as a volumetric value (mm). To obtain the fraction divide by soil depth. Soil characteristic layers are estimated by performing a weighted average from all horizons within a soil component. If PAWC is not available, raster grids obtained from polygon shape files of weight average soil texture (%clay, %sand, %silt) and soil porosity will be needed. See 'Soil Depth' above for a description of where to find and how to process soil data. http://hydrolab.arsusda.gov/SPAW/Index.htm has software to help you estimate your PAWC when you have soil texture data.

e. Land use/land cover

A key component for all Tier 1 water models is a spatially continuous landuse / land class raster grid. That is, within a watershed, all landuse / land class categories should be defined. Gaps in data that break up the drainage continuity of the watershed will create errors. Unknown data gaps should be approximated. Global land use data is available from the University of Maryland's Global Land Cover Facility: http://glcf.umiacs.umd.edu/data/landcover/. This data is available in 1 degree, 8km and 1km resolutions.

The simplest categorization of LULCs on the landscape involves delineation by land cover only (e.g., cropland, temperate conifer forest, and prairie). Several global and regional land cover classifications are available (e.g., Anderson et al. 1976), and often detailed land cover classification has been done for the landscape of interest.
A slightly more sophisticated LULC classification could involve breaking relevant LULC types into more meaningful categories. For example, agricultural land classes could be broken up into different crop types or forest could be broken up into specific species.
The categorization of land use types depends on the model and how much data is available for each of the land types. The user should only break up a land use type if it will provide more accuracy in modeling. For instance, for the water quality model the user should only break up 'crops' into different crop types if they have information on the difference in nutrient loading between crops. Along the same lines, the user should only break the forest land type into specific species for the water supply model if information is available on the root depth and evapotranspiration coefficients for the different species.

Sample Landuse Land class Table.

ID	Land Use /Land Class
1	Evergreen Needleleaf Forest

2	Evergreen Broadleaf Forest
3	Deciduous Needleleaf Forest
4	Deciduous Broadleaf Forest
5	Mixed Cover
6	Woodland
7	Wooded Grassland
8	Closed Shrubland
9	Open Shrubland
10	Grassland
11	Cropland (row Crops)
12	Bare Ground
13	Urban and Built-Up
14	Wetland
15	Mixed evergreen
16	Mixed Forest
17	Orchards/Vinyards
18	Pasture

f. Maximum root depth table

A valuable review of maximum plant rooting depths is available in Canadell, J., R. B. Jackson, and H. Mooney. 1996, Maximum rooting depth of vegetation types at the global scale. *Oecologia* 108: 583-595 where 290 observations in the literature are summarized, and it is concluded that rooting depths are more consistent than that previously believed among similar biomes and plant species. The model determines the minimum of soil depth and rooting depth for an accessible soil profile for water storage. Determinations on how to deal with soil-less systems, such as fractured rock substrates, should be based on expert advice. Effective maximum root depth must be defined for impermeable landuse/land classes, such as urban areas, or water bodies. A rule of thumb is to denote water and urban areas with minimal maximum rooting depths, but a zero value should not be used. The literature values must be converted to mm, and depicted as integer values.

Maximum root depths by species and biomes

Root Depth by Species	Root Depth by Biome
Trees 7.0 m	Cropland 2.1 m
Shrubs 5.1 m	Desert 9.5 m
Herbaceous Plants 2.6 m	Sclerophyllous Shrubland & Forest 5.2 m
	Tropical Deciduous Forest 3.7 m
	Tropical Evergreen Forest 7.3 m
	Grassland 2.6 m
	Tropical Grassland/Savanna 15 m
	Tundra 0.5 m

g. Evapotranspiration coefficient table (ET)

Potential Evapotranspiration = ET Coefficient x Reference Evapotranspiration.
ET coefficient values for crops are readily available from irrigation and horticulture handbooks. FAO has an online resource for this. Values for other vegetation can be estimated using Leaf Area

Index (LAI) relationships, which is a satellite imagery product derived from NDVI analysis. A typical LAI - ETcoef relationship[4] might look as follows:

$$E \quad T \quad \epsilon \begin{cases} \frac{L \quad A}{o\,3\,e} \; w \; I \\ 1 \end{cases} \quad h \quad \text{ø} \; 3 \; n$$

Evapotranspiration coefficients need to be applied to non-vegetated class, such as pavement or water bodies. As a rule of thumb, impermeable surfaces and moving water bodies might be given a low ETcoef value (no zeros should be defined), such as 0.001, to highlight removal of water by drainage. Slow or stagnant water bodies might be given an ETcoef value of 1.
Once evapotranspiration coefficients have been established for all landuse / land classes they must be multiplied by 1000 to obtain the integer value, i.e. Int(ETceof x 1000). No zero values are allowed.

Sample ET coef Table.

ID	Vegetation Type	etk
1	Evergreen Needleleaf Forest	1000
2	Evergreen Broadleaf Forest	1000
3	Deciduous Needleleaf Forest	1000
4	Deciduous Broadleaf Forest	1000
5	Mixed Cover	1000
6	Woodland	1000
7	Wooded Grassland	1000
8	Closed Shrubland	398
9	Open Shrubland	398
10	Grassland	650
11	Cropland (row Crops)	650
12	Bare Ground	1
13	Urban and Built-Up	1
14	Wetland	1000
15	Mixed evergreen	1000
16	Mixed Forest	1000
17	Orchards/Vineyards	700
18	Pasture	850
19	Sclerophyllous Forests	1000

h. Digital elevation model (DEM)

DEM data is available for any area of the world, although at varying resolutions. Free raw global DEM data is available on the internet (http://www.worldwildlife.org/freshwater/hydrosheds.cfm), or for a final product may be purchased relatively inexpensively at sites such as MapMart (www.mapmart.com). ***The DEM used in the model must be hydrologically correct*** meaning that sinks were filled.

[4] See SWAT (Soil Water Assessment Tool) manual.

i. Consumptive water use

The consumptive water use for each land use / land class type should be estimated based on agricultural, forestry, and hydrology literature and / or consultation with local professionals in these fields. The value used in the table is an average for each land use type. For crops, water use can be calculated using information on crop water requirements and scaling up based on area covered by crops. In more general agricultural areas, water use by cattle, agricultural processing, etc. must be considered. For forestry, a similar calculation can be made based on estimates of water use by different forest types. In urban areas, water use may be calculated based on an estimated water use per person and multiplied by the approximate population area per raster cell. Industrial water use must also be considered where applicable. For all of these calculations, it is assumed that the crops, trees, people, etc. are spread evenly across each land use class.

j. Hydropower Watersheds

In order to create a watershed raster for each hydropower station the model user needs to employ the help of a few ArcMap tools in the Spatial Analyst - > Hydrology toolbox. The first step is to snap the hydropower location points to the lowest point on the stream within a given distance using the 'Snap Pour Point' tool. The user should then select the 'Watershed' tool and use the newly snapped pour points to delineate watersheds for each of the hydropower stations.

This delineation should be checked to ensure that the watersheds accurately represent reality. This reality check may involve talking to a local hydrologist, checking the drainage area for a nearby USGS gage, or doing a back of the envelope calculation for the annual rainfall multiplied by the watershed area and comparing it to the average annual volume of flow into the hydropower station. If the modeled watersheds are too large or too small, the user should go back to the Snap Pour Point step and choose a different snapping distance, or try an alternate method of delineation (use of SWAT utility to delineate watersheds). These steps should be repeated until the watersheds make sense.

See the Working with the DEM section of this manual for more information on generating watersheds and sub-watersheds.

k. Hydropower Station Information

Detailed information about each hydropower station may only be available from the owner or managing entity of the stations. Some information may be available through public sources, and may be accessible online. In particular, if the hydropower plant is located in the United States information may be found on the internet. The first place to check is the National Inventory of Dams (http://crunch.tec.army.mil/nidpublic/webpages/nid.cfm). If a hydropower dam is owned by the Bureau of Reclamation, they should have information on the reservoir on their Dataweb (http://www.usbr.gov/dataweb/). Similar information may be found online at other websites for reservoirs owned or operated by other government agencies or energy companies.

g. *Calibration*: For calibration, data are needed on how much water actually reaches each hydropower station on an average annual basis. Data should be available from

the managing entity of the hydropower plant. In absence of information available directly from the hydropower operators, data may be available for a stream gage just upstream of the hydropower station. Gages in the U.S. may be managed by the USGS, the state fish and wildlife agency, the state department of ecology or by a local university. The model user should consider whether the gage measures natural or managed streamflow and adjust measurements as necessary. The drainage area downstream of the gage and upstream of the hydropower station must also be considered when comparing gaged flow with modeled flow.

h. *Time_period*: The design life span of each hydropower station can be obtained from the station owner or operator. Alternative sources may be available online as described above.
This value may instead represent the time period of a scenario of interest, which should be equal to or smaller than the life span of the station.

i. *Discount_rate*: this rate is defined as how much value the currency loses per year.

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WATER PURIFICATION: NUTRIENT RETENTION

Summary

Water purification is an essential service provided by ecosystems. InVEST estimates the contribution of vegetation and soil to purifying water through the removal of nutrient pollutants from runoff. The biophysical model uses data on water yield, land use and land cover, nutrient loading and filtration rates and water quality standards (if they exist) to determine nutrient retention capacity for current and future land use scenarios. The valuation model uses data on water treatment costs and a discount rate to determine the value contributed by the natural system to water purification. It does not address chemical or biological interactions besides filtration by terrestrial vegetation (such as in-stream processes) and is less relevant to locations with extensive tile drainage or ditching, strong surface water-ground water interactions, or hydrology dominated by infiltration excess (dry regions with flashy rains)..

Introduction

Clean water is a vital service provided by healthy streams, watersheds and river basins. Polluted water is especially harmful to human health. In fact, waterborne illnesses are the leading cause of human disease and death around the world killing more than 3.4 million people annually (World Health Organization). Clean water also provides habitat for aquatic life in streams, rivers and lakes but these habitats require a proper nutrient balance. If nutrients and toxins accumulate in water, fish and other aquatic creatures may be poisoned, along with the people consuming them.

Many of these harmful conditions are caused by non-point source pollution, which occurs when a pollution source is distributed over an area or discharged into the atmosphere and incorporated into hydrological flows through rainfall and runoff. There are numerous sources of non-point source pollution, including fertilizer used in agriculture and residential landscaping, and oil that leaks from cars onto roads. When it rains or snows, water flows over the landscape carrying pollutants from these surfaces into streams, rivers, lakes, and the ocean.

One way to reduce non-point source pollution is to reduce the amount of pollutants that enter the water body. If this is not possible, ecosystems can provide this service by retaining some non-point

source pollutants. For instance, vegetation can remove pollutants by storing them in tissue or releasing them back to the environment in another form. Soils can also store and trap some soluble pollutants. Wetlands can slow flow long enough for pollutants to be taken up by vegetation. Riparian vegetation is particularly important in this regard, often serving as a last defense against pollutants entering a stream.

Land use planners from government agencies to environment groups need information regarding the contribution of ecosystems to mitigating water pollution. Specifically, they require information pertaining to the value of every part of a watershed for maintaining water quality so that conservation may be targeted to the areas most important for protecting a safe water supply for people and aquatic life. They can also use this information to avoid impacts in areas that currently contribute the most to filtering out pollutants. The InVEST Tier 1 model provides this information for non-point source pollutants. We have designed the model to deal with nutrient pollutants (nitrogen and phosphorous), but the model can be used for other kinds of contaminants (persistent organics, pathogens etc.) if data are available on the loading rates and filtration rates of the pollutant of interest.

The Model

The InVEST Water Purification Nutrient Retention model calculates the amount of nutrients retained on every pixel of a watershed and the economic value retention provides through avoided treatment costs. It integrates data on the magnitude of overland flow, pollutant loading, the capacity of different vegetation types to filter pollutants, the cost of water treatment (for pollutants of interest), and feasibility to meet water quality standards.

The model's limitations are that it runs on an annual average basis, can only assess one pollutant per run, does not address chemical or biological interactions besides filtration by terrestrial vegetation, and in some cases it may provide an in-accurate marginal cost for pollutant removal (when pollutant costs relative to pollutant concentration are non-linear). The model assumes that non-point sources of water pollution result from export that can be mitigated by vegetation serving as intercepting filters. It also assumes that water flows downslope along natural flowpaths, so it may be less relevant in areas with tile drainage and extensive ditching practices. It does not consider the role of ecosystems in affecting point-source pollutants. It also may be less relevant where there is significant groundwater surface water interaction and in dry eco-regions

How it Works

The model runs on a gridded map of regular cells (called raster format in GIS). It estimates the quantity and value of pollutants retained for water purification from a landscape in three components.

The first step calculates annual average runoff from each parcel (see Hydropower chapter). In the second step, we determine the quantity of pollutant retained by each parcel on the landscape. First, we

estimate how much pollutant is exported from each parcel, based on export coefficients the user inputs. Export coefficients, developed by Reckhow et al. 1980, are annual averages of pollutant loadings derived from various field studies that measure export from parcels within the United States. Since these coefficients were developed in agricultural regions in the US, but we want to apply this model in other regions, we include a hydrological sensitivity score that accounts for differences in condition between the fields where the measures were developed and the conditions where the user is applying the model. We do this with the following equation:

$$ALV_x = HSS_x \cdot pol_x$$

where ALV_x is the Adjusted Loading Value at pixel x, pol_x is the export coefficient at pixel x, and HSS_x is the Hydrologic Sensitivity Score at pixel x which is calculated as:

$$HSS_x = \frac{\lambda_x}{\overline{\lambda_W}}$$

where λ_x is the runoff index at pixel x, calculated using the following equation, and $\overline{\lambda_W}$ is the mean runoff index in the watershed of interest.

$$\lambda_x = Log\left(\sum_U Y_u\right)$$

where $\sum_U Y_u$ is the sum of the water yield of pixels along the flow path above pixel x (it also includes the water yield of pixel x).

Once we know how much pollutant leaves each parcel, we can determine how much of that load is retained by each downstream parcel, as surface runoff moves the pollutant towards the stream. The model routes water down flowpaths determined by slope, and allows each parcel downstream from a polluting parcel to retain pollutant based on its land cover type and that land cover type's ability to retain the modeled pollutant. We do not account for saturation of uptake. By following the pollutant load of each parcel all the way downstream to a water body, the model also tracks how much pollutant reaches the stream. The table below describes how this removal from routing and hydraulic connectivity is done:

Cell	Vegetation retention	ALV	Retained by Cell (retained)	Outflow quantity (OQ) from Cell (Gi=1-Ei)
1	E1	ALV1	0	ALV1
2	E2	ALV2	ALV1.E2	ALV1.G2+ALV2
3	E3	ALV3	((ALV1.G2+ALV2).E3	(ALV1.G2+ALV2).G3+ALV3
4	E4	ALV4	ALV1.G2.G3.E4+ ALV2.G3.E4+ ALV3.E4	ALV1.G2.G3.G4+ ALV2.G3.G4+ ALV3.G4+

				ALV4

The model then aggregates the loading that reaches the stream from each pixel to determine a total pollutant load at each point of interest. The user can then compare this load to a known (observed or simulated using another water quality model) measurement and adjust export coefficients and filtration efficiencies as needed until the modeled load matches the measured load for each point of interest. The user should consider the likely impact of in-stream processes in any calibration work as this model does not include in-stream processes.

Once the total load is determined, we can (optionally) calculate the value of this service provided by each pixel based on the avoided treatment costs the retention by natural vegetation and soil provides. We make this calculation as follows:

$$wp\_Value_x = Cost(p) * retained_x * (1 - \frac{Ann\_Load}{CNL})$$

Where:
Wp_value_x is the value of retention for pixel x.
$Cost(p)$ is the annual treatment cost in $(currency)/kg for the pollutant of interest (p).
$retained_x$ is the total pollutant retained by pixel x of the total amount of upslope pollutant arriving at this pixel.
Ann_Load is the Annual Loading for pollutant of interest allowed before any damage to human health or natural habitat health occur. It is the threshold below which service is invaluable.
CNL is the cumulative pollutant loading estimated by the model at the outlet of your watershed (outlet of your watershed = point of interest)

Limitations and Simplifications

The model has a number of assumptions.

The model has a number of assumptions. First, since the model was developed for watershed and landscapes dominated by saturation excess runoff hydrology, it may be less applicable to locations where the hydrology is determined by rainfall intensity; in areas where flashy rains are predominant and where infiltration excess runoff occurs. This kind of runoff is the result of intense rains that saturate only the top soil layer, not the entire profile. However, the model's use of a runoff index and hydraulic routing should sufficiently adjust for this.

Second, the model can only assess one pollutant per run. If the user wishes to model several pollutants, but does not have data on loadings and filtration rates for each pollutant, choose a pollutant that acts as a surrogate in predicting loadings for other pollutants. The most common surrogate is phosphorus because heavy phosphorus loadings are often associated with other pollutants such as nitrogen, bacteria and suspended solids, however using a pollutant surrogate should be approached with caution. Alternatively, the user can run the model multiple times using export values and retention coefficients for each pollutant. In general, the model can only assess pollutants that are susceptible to export via surface and subsurface flows.

Third, the model does not address any chemical or biological interactions that may occur from the point of loading to the point of interest besides filtration by terrestrial vegetation. In reality, pollutants may degrade over time and distance through interactions with the air, water, other pollutants, bacteria or other actors.

Fourth, the model assumes that there is continuity in the hydraulic flow path. The user should be aware of any discontinuity in the flow path. Tile drainage and ditches could create short cuts for pollutant movement and run pollutant directly to streams

Finally, in some cases the model may provide an inaccurate marginal cost for pollutant removal. The full marginal cost of removing a unit volume of pollutants is difficult to estimate due to the complexity of the treatment process. The marginal cost may not be a constant value but instead a function of decreasing cost per additional unit volume of pollutant as the total volume increases. Also, the cost of treatment may change over time as technology improves or water quality standards evolve.

Data Needs

The model uses eleven types of input data. See the appendix for information on finding or creating these inputs.

1. Digital elevation model (DEM) (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an elevation value for each cell. Make sure the DEM is corrected by filling in sinks, and if necessary 'burning' hydrographic features into the elevation model (recommended when you see unusual streams). See the Working with the DEM section of this manual for more information.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces ("DEM" is simplest).
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with elevation value for each cell given in meters above sea level.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**dem**

2. Soil depth (required). A GIS raster dataset with an average soil depth value for each cell. The soil depth values should be in millimeters .

Name: File name can be anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file, with an average soil depth in millimeters for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **soil_depth**

3. Precipitation (required). A GIS raster dataset with a non-zero value for average annual precipitation for each cell. The precipitation values should be in millimeters.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with precipitation values for each cell.

Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **precip**

4. Plant Available Water Content (required). A GIS raster dataset with a plant available water content value for each cell. Plant Available Water Content fraction (PAWC) is the fraction of water that can be stored in the soil profile that is available for plants' use.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with available water content values for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**pawc**

5. Average Annual Potential Evapotranspiration (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an annual average evapotranspiration value for each cell. Potential evapotranspiration is the potential loss of water from soil by both evaporation from the soil and transpiration by healthy Alfalfa (or grass) if sufficient water is available. The evapotranspiration values should be in millimeters.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with potential evapotranspiration values for each cell.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**eto**

6. Land use/land cover (required). A GIS raster dataset, with an LULC code for each cell. The LULC code should be an integer.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with an integer LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.). These codes must match LULC codes in the Model Coefficients table.
Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data**landuse_90**

7. Sub-watersheds (required). A GIS raster dataset. This is a layer of watersheds or sub-watersheds, which contribute to the points of interest where water quality will be analyzed.

Due to limitations in ArcMap geoprocessing, the maximum size of a watershed or sub-watershed is approximately the equivalent of 4000x4000 cells, with cell size equal to the smallest cell size of your input layers. If the whole watershed contributing to a point of interest is larger than this size, it will need to be divided into sub-watersheds that are each smaller. Then, the resulting sub-watershed layer should be entered here and the whole watershed layer should be used in the Watersheds input. If the whole watershed is smaller, then it does not need to be divided, and the same watershed layer should be entered for both Sub-watersheds and Watersheds inputs. Sub-watersheds will be mosaicked back together into whole watersheds for the final output.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.

Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with unique integers for each sub-watershed in the Value field.
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data**subwatersheds**

8. Watersheds (required). A GIS raster dataset. This is a layer of watersheds such that each watershed contributes to a point of interest where water quality will be analyzed. See **Sub-watersheds** above for more information on watershed size requirements.

Name: File can be named anything, but avoid spaces.
Format: Standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with unique integers for each watershed in the Value field
Sample data set: \InVEST\ Base_Data **watersheds**

9. Model Coefficients Table (required). A table of land use/land cover (LULC) classes, containing data on water quality coefficients used in this tool. NOTE: these data are attributes of each LULC class rather than attributes of individual cells in the raster map.

Name: File can be named anything.
File type: *.dbf
Rows: Each row is an LULC class.
Columns: Each column contains a different attribute of each land use/land cover class, and must be named as follows:

a. *lucode* (Land use code): Unique integer for each LULC class (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.), must match the LULC raster above.
b. *LULC_desc*: Descriptive name of land use/land cover class (optional)
c. *root_depth:* The maximum root depth for vegetated land use classes, given in integer millimeters. Non-vegetated LULCs should be given a value of 1.
d. *etk:* The evapotranspiration coefficient for each LULC class, used to obtain actual evapotranspiration by using plant energy/transpiration characteristics to modify the reference evapotranspiration, which is based on alfalfa (or grass). Coefficients should be multiplied by 1000, so that the final *etk* values given in the table are integers ranging between 1 and 1500 (some crops evapotranspire more than alfalfa in some very wet tropical regions and where water is always available).
c. *load_n / load_p*: The nutrient loading for each land use. If nitrogen is being evaluated, supply values in *load_n*, for phosphorus, supply values in *load_p*.The potential for terrestrial loading of water quality impairing constituents is based on nutrient export coefficients. The nutrient loading values are given as integer values by multiplying the export coefficients by 1000, giving units of 1000* Kg Ha^{-1} yr^{-1}.
d. *eff_n / eff_p*. The vegetation filtering value per pixel size for each LULC class, as an integer percent between zero and 100. If nitrogen is being evaluated, supply values in *eff_n*, for phosphorus, supply values in *eff_p*. This field identifies the capacity of vegetation to retain nutrient, as a percentage of the amount of nutrient flowing into a cell from upslope. For example if the user has data describing that wetland of 5000 m^2 retains 82% of nitrogen, then the retention efficiency that the he should input into this filed for eef_n is equal to

(82/5000 * (cell size)^2). In the simplest case, when data for each LULC type are not available, high values (60 to 80) may be assigned to all natural vegetation types (such as forests, natural pastures, wetlands, or prairie), indicating that 60-80% of nutrient is retained. An intermediary value also may be assigned to features such as contour buffers. All LULC classes that have no filtering capacity, such as pavement, can be assigned a value of zero.

Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data\Water_Tables.mdb**Biophysical_Models**

Example: Case with 6 LULC categories, where potential evapotranspiration, root depth and nutrient (both N and P) filtration efficiencies do not vary among LULC categories, while nutrient loadings do.

LULC_desc	lucode	etk	root_depth	load_n	eff_n	load_p	eff_p
Low Density Residential	1	1	1	7000	0	1000	0
Mid Density Residential	2	1	1	7250	0	1100	0
High Density Residential	3	1	1	7500	0	1200	0
Very High Density Residential	4	1	1	7750	0	1300	0
Vacant	5	1	1	4000	0	100	0
Commercial	6	1	1	13800	0	3000	0

10. Threshold flow accumulation value (required). Integer value defining the number of upstream cells that must flow into a cell before it's considered part of a stream. This is used to generate a stream layer from the DEM. The default is 1000. This value is to define and create the stream lines. If the user has map of stream lines in the watershed of interest, he/she should compare it the V_stream map (output of the model). This value also needs to be well estimated in watersheds where tile drainage and ditches are present. This threshold expresses where hydraulic routing is discontinued and where retention stops and the remaining of the pollutant will be exported to the stream.

11. Watershed coefficient table (optional – required for valuation). This is a table containing calibration and valuation information for each of the points of interest. There must be one row for each watershed in the Watersheds layer.

Name: File can be named anything.
File type: *.dbf
Rows: Each row corresponds to a watershed.
Columns: Each column contains a different attribute of each watershed and must be named as follows:

a. *wshed_id* (watershed ID): Unique integer value for each watershed, which must correspond to values in the Watersheds raster.
b. *calib*: Annual watershed loading calibration constant. Multiplying this value by the total watershed load output (Output/ws_nutexp) should give the actual total annual load observed/measured at the point of interest. Floating point value.
c. *ann_load*: The total critical annual nutrient loading allowed for the nutrient of interest at the point of interest. Floating point value.

d. *cost*: Annual Cost of nutrient removal treatment in $ / kg removed. Floating point value.
e. *time_span:* Number of years for which net present value will be calculated. Integer value. This could be the time span (number of years) of either the same LULC scenario or the water treatment plant life span.
f. *discount:* The rate of discount over the time span, used in net present value calculations. Floating point value.

Sample data set: \InVEST\Base_Data\Water_Tables.mdb**WaterPurification**

wshed_id	calib	ann_load	cost	time_span	discount
0	1	50	24	15	5
1	1	77	24	25	5
2	1	31	24	15	5

Running the Model

Before running the Water Purification Nutrient Retention model, make sure that the INVEST toolbox has been added to your ARCMAP document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this guide. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*.

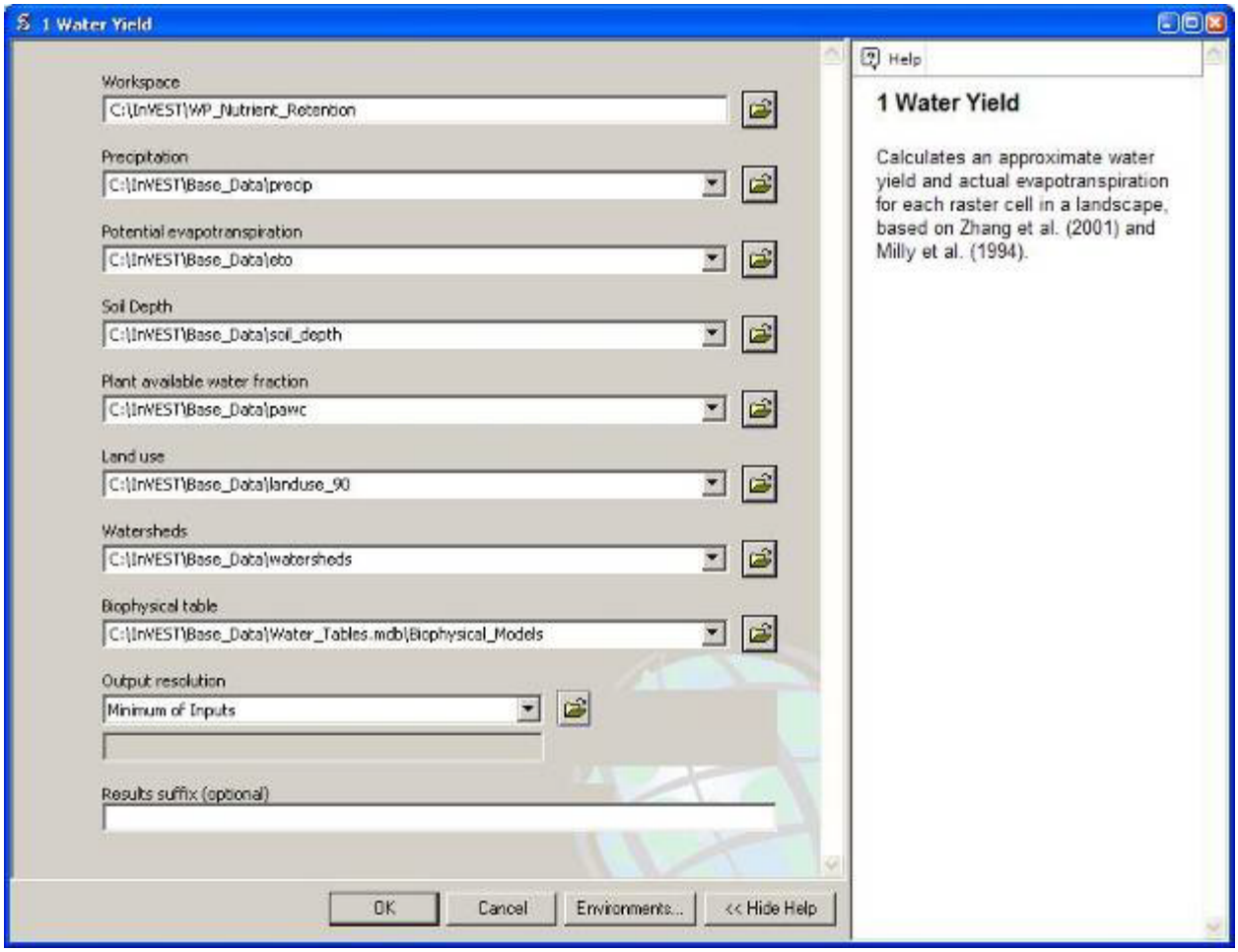
- Create a workspace on your computer hard-drive if you are using your data. The pathname to the workspace should not have spaces. All your output files will be saved here. For simplicity, you could create a folder in your workspace called "Input" and place all your input files here. It is not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but this will make it easier to view the data you use to run your model. If this is your first time using InVEST and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder named /InVEST/ **WP_Nutrient_Retention**. This folder will be your workspace. The input files are in /InVEST/**Base_Data**.

- Open an ARCMAP document to run the model.

- Locate the INVEST toolbox in ARCTOOLBOX. ARCTOOLBOX should be open in ARCMAP, but if it is not, click on the ARCTOOLBOX symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you do not see the InVEST toolbox.

- Click the plus sign on the left side of the INVEST toolbox to expand the list of tools. Double-click on Nutrient_Retention. Three options will appear: Water Yield, Nutrient Removal, and Valuation. Water Yield must be run first, Nutrient Removal second, and Valuation last. The scripts MUST be run in this order because the output from a previous script is required for the next script.

- Click on Water Yield.



- An interface will appear like the one above that indicates default (sample data) file names, but you can use the file buttons or drop-down arrows to browse to your data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a brief description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. Refer to the ***Data Needs*** section for information on data formats.

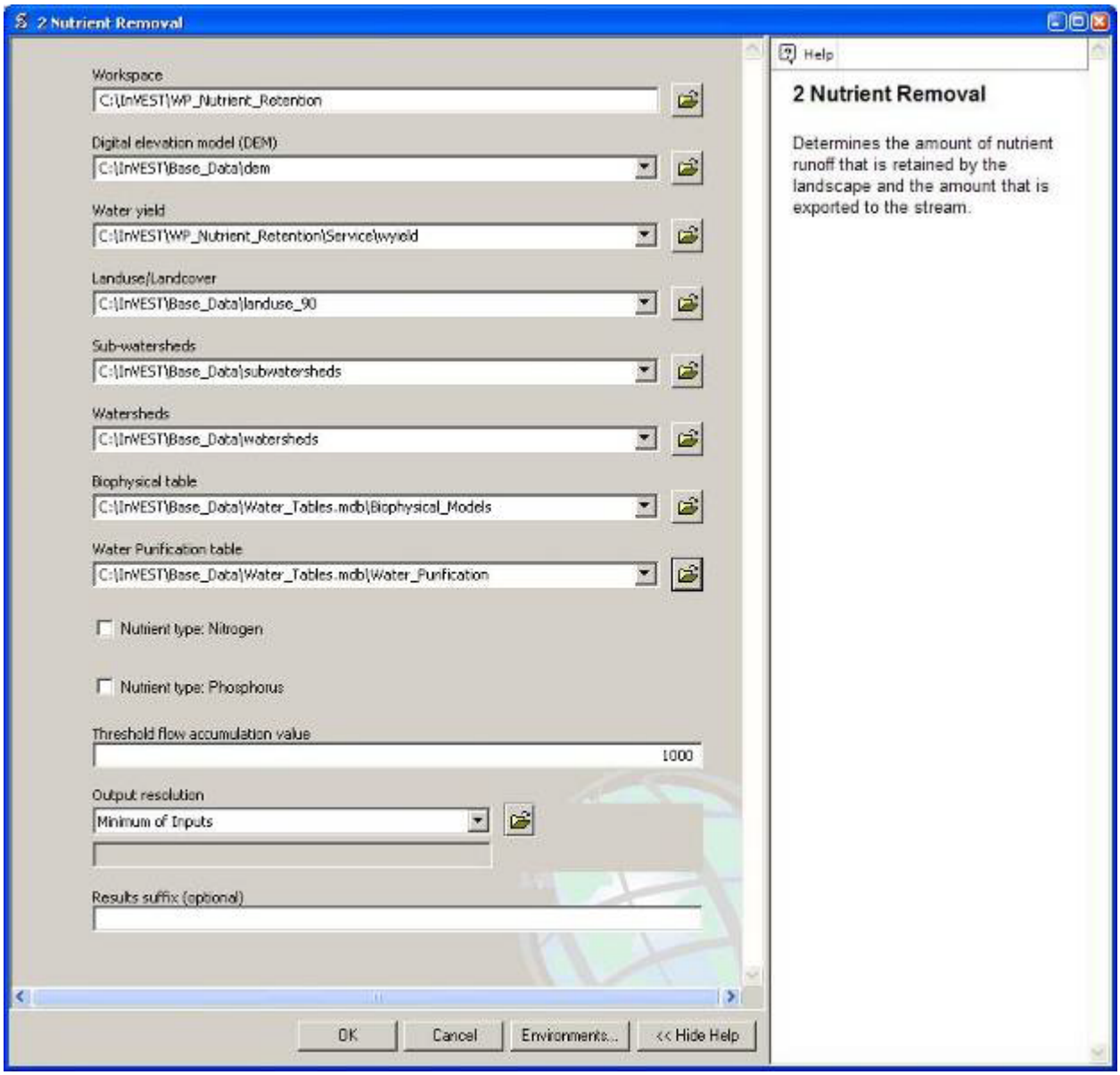
- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires data.

- After entering all required data, click OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue".

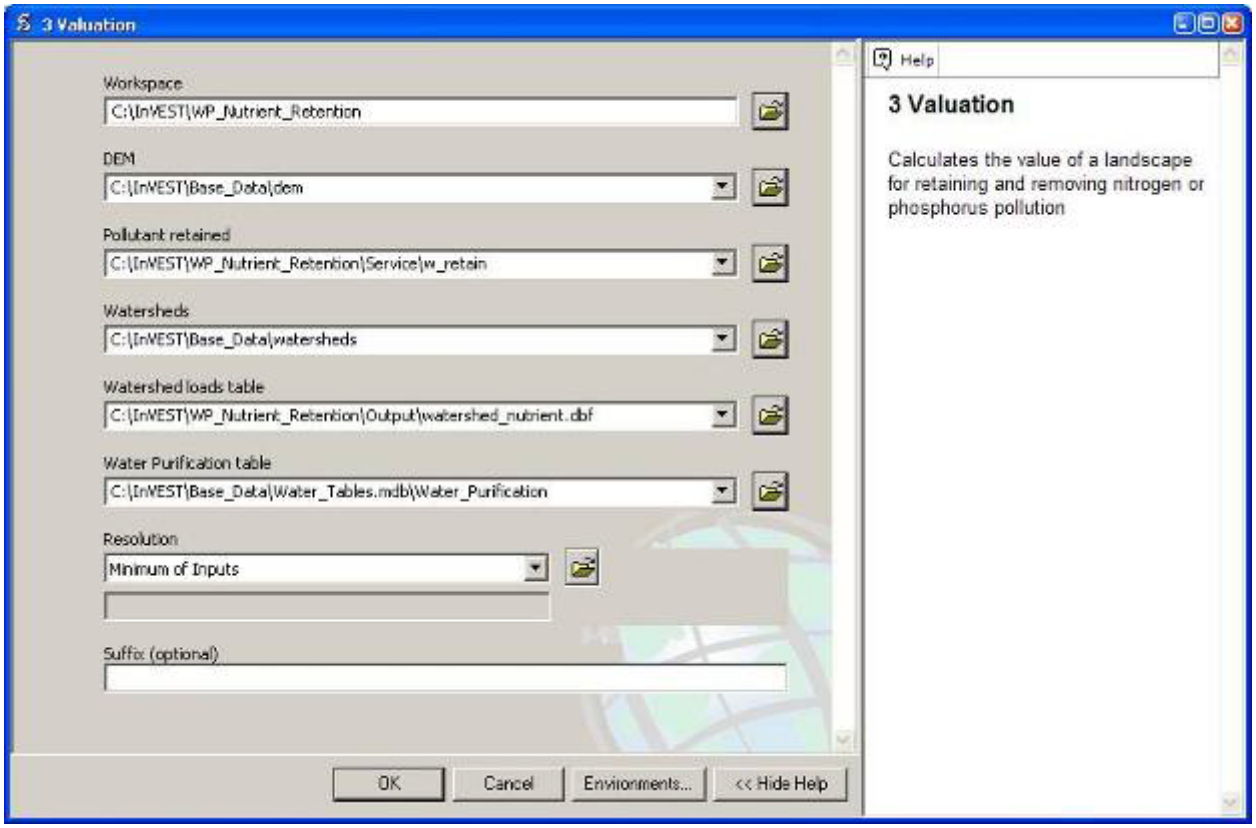
- To view the attribute data of output files, right click a layer and select OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

- Now you are ready to run Nutrient Removal. Follow the same steps as for Water Yield. Note that an output from Water Yield, **Service\wyield**, is a required input to Nutrient Removal. **Make sure to select one of the Nutrient Type boxes, the model needs one of**

the two to be checked to run (sometime, you will see (optional) after Nitrogen or Phosphorus, but you still need to check the box of the nutrient you are interested in). The interface is below:



- When the script completes running, its results will be saved in the Output and Service folders.
- Load the output grids into ARCMAP using the ADD DATA button.
- Finally, you have the option to run Valuation. Two outputs from Nutrient Removal are required, **Service\w_retain** and **Output\watershed_nutrient.dbf**. The interface is below:



- When the script completes running, its results will be saved in the Service folder.
- Load the output grids into ARCMAP using the ADD DATA button.
- To view the attribute data of output files, right click a layer and select OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

Interpreting Results

Parameter Log

Each time the model is run, a text file will appear in the Output folder. The file will list the parameter values for that run and will be named according to the service, the date and time, and the suffix.

Final Results

Final results are found in the Output and Service folders within the working directory set up for this model.

- *runoff_idx:* Runoff Index raster. Describes the potential for surface and subsurface runoff across the landscape. Based on the water yield and runoff coming from upstream pixels to the pixel.

- *hss:* Hydrologic Sensitivity Score raster. The model normalizes the runoff index based on its mean and assigns landscape pixels HSS scores. This HSS will adjust pixels loading; pixels that have runoff index below the mean will export less than export coefficients and pixels that have higher than mean runoff index will export more than export coefficients. The HSS grid provides a relative picture of where runoff is produced across the landscape. It is recommended to verify this grid with local knowledge of land use and overland flow to ensure accuracy.

- *Adj_Load(kg):* Raster showing critical areas of contaminant loading. This raster shows where pollutant loadings are of concern because of high loading rates in high scoring HSS areas. It is recommended to verify this grid with local knowledge of major sources of modeled pollutants to ensure accuracy.

- ***w-retain(kg)*:** Amount of nutrient retained by each pixel from what flows into it from upstream pixels. **THIS OUTPUT REPRESENTS THE ECOSYSTEM SERVICE OF WATER PURIFICATION IN BIOPHYSICAL TERMS.** It indicates the pixels that may be most important for keeping waterways free of pollutants.

- *w_export(kg):* Raster showing the pollutant loading that reaches the stream from each pixel. This raster will be especially useful for managers interested in controlling pollutant inputs.

- *w_cum_exp(kg):* Cumulative Nutrient Loading raster. This is the cumulative amount of nutrient that it is delivered to the stream from each pixel along flow path. It should be used for comparing values with measured data at points along flow path. Adjustments of export coefficients and vegetation filtration efficiencies are recommended when comparing simulated loading to observed loading at your point of interest. Also, comparing *V_Stream* to stream lines should help in the comparison between model outputs and observed loadings.

- *ws_nutexp(kg)*: the sum of the exported pollutant to the outlet of the watershed of interest.

- *watershed_nutrienst.dbf:* Table containing values for the total nutrient loading at the outlet of the watershed which is the cumulative nutrient load (CNL) arriving at the point of interest for each watershed (equal to Maximum of CNL per watershed).

- ***wp_value($, currency):*** This grid shows the economic benefit of filtration by vegetation delivered at the downstream point(s) of interest. **THIS OUTPUT REPRESENTS THE ECOSYSTEM SERVICE OF WATER PURIFICATION IN ECONOMIC TERMS.** It may be useful for identifying areas where investments in protecting this ecosystem service will provide the greatest returns. Variation in this output with scenario analyses (by running

and comparing different LULC scenarios) will indicate where land use changes may have the greatest impacts on service provision.

These outputs provide an interim insight into the dynamics of pollutant loading, transport and filtration in a watershed. The model will be most informative if it is used in collaboration with experts in hydrology familiar with the watershed. In case model coefficients require adjustment and to guard against erroneous data input, it is recommended that model outputs are verified with field data mimicking pollutant loading and watershed transport processes.

Appendix: Data Sources

This is a rough compilation of data sources and suggestions about finding, compiling, and formatting data. This section should be used for ideas and suggestions only. It will be updated as new data sources and methods become available.

1. Digital elevation model (DEM).
DEM data is available for any area of the world, although at varying resolutions. Free raw global DEM data is available on the internet from the World Wildlife Fund - http://www.worldwildlife.org/freshwater/hydrosheds.cfm. NASA provides free global 30m DEM data at http://asterweb.jpl.nasa.gov/gdem-wist.asp. Or, it may be purchased relatively inexpensively at sites such as MapMart (www.mapmart.com). The hydrological aspects of the DEM used in the model must be correct. Please see the introduction section to the complete model manual for instructions on how to check for this.

2. Soil depth.
Soil depth may be obtained from standard soil maps. Coarse, yet free global soil characteristic data are available at http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/seg/cdroms/reynolds/reynolds/reynolds.htm. In the United States free soil data is available from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's NRCS in the form of two datasets: SSURGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/ssurgo/ and STATSGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/statsgo/ . Where available SSURGO data should be used, as it is much more detailed than STATSGO. Where gaps occur in the SSURGO data, STATSGO can be used to fill in the blanks.

The soil depth should be calculated as the max depth of all horizons within a soil class component, and then a weighted average of the components should be estimated. This can be a tricky GIS analysis: In the US soil categories, each soil property polygon can contain a number of soil type components with unique properties, and each component may have different soil horizon layers, also with unique properties. Processing requires careful weighting across components and horizons. The Soil Data Viewer (http://soildataviewer.nrcs.usda.gov/), a free ArcMap extension from the NRCS, does this soil data processing for the user and should be used whenever possible.

Ultimately, a grid layer must be produced. Data gaps, such as urban areas or water bodies need to be given appropriate values. Urban areas and water bodies can be thought of having zero soil

depth.

4. Land use and land cover

A key component for all water models is a spatially continuous land use and land cover raster grid. That is, within a watershed, all land use and land cover categories should be defined. Gaps in data that break up the drainage continuity of the watershed will create errors. Unknown data gaps should be approximated. The more detailed and descriptive these files are the better accuracy and modeling results. Global land use data is available from the University of Maryland's Global Land Cover Facility: http://glcf.umiacs.umd.edu/data/landcover/. This data is available in 1 degree, 8km and 1km resolutions.

The simplest categorization of LULCs on the landscape involves delineation by land cover only (e.g., cropland, temperate conifer forest, prairie). Several global and regional land cover classifications are available (e.g., Anderson et al. 1976), and often detailed land cover classification has been done for the landscape of interest. A slightly more sophisticated LULC classification could involve breaking relevant LULC types into more meaningful types. For example, agricultural land classes could be broken up into different crop types or forest could be broken up into specific species.

The categorization of land use types depends on the model and how much data is available for each of the land types. The user should only break up a land use type if it will provide more accuracy in modeling. For instance, for the Water Purification: Nutrient Retention model the user should only break up 'crops' into different crop types if they have information on the difference in nutrient loading between crops. Along the same lines, the user should only break the forest land type into specific species for the water supply model if information is available on the root depth and evapotranspiration coefficients for the different species.

5. Nutrient Loading Coefficients

Examples of export and loading coefficients can be found in the EPA PLOAD User's Manual http://www.epa.gov/waterscience/basins/b3docs/PLOAD_v3.pdf and in the Wetlands Regulatory Assistance Program publication http://el.erdc.usace.army.mil/elpubs/pdf/tnwrap043.pdf. Note that the examples in the EPA guide are in lbs/ac/yr and would need to be converted to kg/ha/yr.

Phosphorus is a common water quality proxy because it incorporates both dissolved and particulate nutrient loadings, are well associated with surface runoff, and is usually the limiting nutrient for fresh water systems. The table below shows default phosphorus export coefficients largely based on values from USEPA manuals, and research studies in the US. The bottom three rows are used solely for direct untreated waste water discharge (i.e. untreated sewage piped into water systems) from urban areas commonly found in developing countries.

If local data / approximations for Phosphorus export coefficients exist they can be used or replace default values in table.

Table : Example Phosphorus and Nitrogen export coefficients (Reckhow et al. 1980)

Landuse	Nitrogen Export	Phosphorus Export

	Coefficient (kg/ha/yr)	Coefficient (kg/ha/yr)
Forest	1.8	0.011
Corn	11.1	2
Cotton	10	4.3
Soybeans	12.5	4.6
Small Grain	5.3	1.5
Pasture	3.1	0.1
Feedlot or Dairy	2900	220
Idle	3.4	0.1
Residential	7.5	1.2
Business	13.8	3
Industrial	4.4	3.8

The loading proxy may also aggregate several indicators, agreed upon between managers, such as an algorithm that aggregates phosphorus, nitrates, and other constituents. Alternatively, a manager may begin using values from EPA table as a starting point to generate discussion, and then alter values based on local expert opinion and stakeholder feedback.

6. Vegetation Filtering Value (*eff_n, eff_p*)
These values are used to incorporate the effects of natural vegetation that buffer potential water quality impairment downhill from sources. To develop these values, all land class pixels that contain natural vegetation (such as forests, natural pastures, wetlands, or prairie) are assigned high values and vegetation that has no or little filtering value receives a value of zero. All values should fall between 0 and 100. Consult with a hydrologist if not certain about assignment of specific values.

7. Calibration Data (*Calib*).
Calibration data is needed for ensuring that the Tier 1 Water Purification: Nutrient Retention model results match well with reality. Most often calibration data may be obtained from water quality monitoring that is already in place. If the point of interest is a water supply intake, the drinking water entity will most likely collect water quality at the point of intake. If the point of interest is in a stream or lake, the water quality may have been tested by a public agency. Most likely if the location is of interest in terms of meeting a water quality standard, data should be available. In the U.S. the user may contact or look up online their state environmental agency, EPA, fish and wildlife service, or any local universities conducting research on the water body.

Once data is collected, the user may have to convert the values into actual pollutant loads and / or correlate a measured pollutant with a proxy modeled pollutant. In addition to correlation analysis, other calibration methods such as Nash Coefficient, ranking analysis, and graphical comparison could be used.

8. Critical Annual Load (*Ann_Load*).
Gathering information on water quality standards or targets should be part of the formulation of modeling objectives. If the target to be met is a drinking water target, standards may be set by the federal, state or local level (whichever standard is the most stringent). The table below provides

some general drinking water standards set by global and national agencies.

Selected Drinking Water Standards by World Health Organization, European Union, and US EPA. (Ashbolt et al. 2001)

Parameter	Type	WHO	EU	USEPA
Ammonia	Social	1.5 mg L -1	0.50 mg L -1	No GL
pH	Social	6.5-8	No guidelines	6.5-8.5
Chloride	Social	250 mg L -1	250 mg L -1	250 mg L -1
Iron	Social	0.3 mg L -1	0.2 mg L -1	0.3 mg L -1
Lead	Health	0.01 mg L -1	0.01 mg L -1	0.015 mg L -1
Arsenic	Health	0.01 mg L -1	0.01 mg L -1	0.01 mg L -1
Copper	Health	2.0 mg L -1	2.0 mg L -1	1.3 mg L -1
Fecal Coliform bacteria	Health	0 counts/100 mL	0 counts/100 mL	0 counts/100 mL

These standards are set for point of use, meaning that the standard at the point of interest, where water supply will be drawn, may be more relaxed than these standards if water treatment is in place. In-situ water quality standards (for rivers, lakes and streams) may also be set at the national, state and local level. They may be the same across all water bodies of the same type (in rivers, for example) or they may vary depending on the established use of the water body or the presence of endangered species. In the U.S. Total Maximum Daily Loads of various pollutants are typically established by state regulatory agencies in compliance with the Clean Water Act. States report information on TMDL's to the U.S.EPA on specific waterways http://www2.ctic.purdue.edu/kyw/tmdl/statetmdllists.html .

9. Marginal pollutant removal costs (*Cost*)

The cost to remove pollutants may vary greatly for each point of interest. If the point of interest is a water supply outtake, this value should be obtained from the water treatment entity who uses and treats the water. Calculations may need to be performed to transform actual costs to cost per unit volume of pollutant, and correlations may need to be run between a proxy pollutant and other pollutants that the treatment process removes. If a more general cost of treatment is sought, the user may consult engineering texts or literature to obtain average costs. The user must be sure to bring these costs into present value and make adjustments as necessary depending on the location and type of treatment.

If the point of interest is an in situ water quality target, the marginal pollutant removal cost is much more difficult to obtain. The user may be able to estimate the cost of an additional unit volume of pollutant in terms of fish populations, lost revenue for recreation, or a fine, but this

may be a complicated calculation not worth the effort at this level of modeling. The user may choose to assign a cost of one to save time while still obtaining relative results useful in comparing scenarios.

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AVOIDED RESERVOIR SEDIMENTATION MODEL

Summary

Reservoirs are linked to a number of ecosystem services, including the generation of energy through reservoir hydropower production, irrigation of crops and recreational activities. Erosion and sedimentation of watersheds can lead to decreased hydropower output, structural damage to reservoirs and other water infrastructure, and flooding. InVEST estimates the capacity of a land parcel to retain sediment using data on geomorphology, climate, vegetation and management practices. These estimates are combined with data on sediment removal costs, reservoir design, and a discount rate to calculate the avoided cost of sediment removal. Limitations of the model include negligence of mass erosion, inadequate information about sediment removal costs, and simplified LULC classifications.

Introduction

Erosion and sedimentation are natural processes that contribute to healthy ecosystems, but too much may have severe consequences. Excessive erosion can reduce agricultural productivity, increase flooding and pollutant transport, and threaten bridges, railroads and power infrastructures. Erosion can lead to sediment build-up, which strains water infrastructures, such as reservoirs and flood control systems, and increases water treatment costs. Sedimentation is particularly problematic for reservoirs, which are designed to retain sediment as water is released. Regular sediment removal can avoid some of these issues but this involves expensive maintenance costs.

The magnitude of sediment transport in a watershed is determined by several factors. Natural variation in soil properties, precipitation patterns, and slope create patterns of erosion and sediment runoff. Vegetation holds soil in place and captures sediment moving overland. However, changes in land management practices can alter the sediment retention capacity of land by removing important vegetation.

There are many clear examples of the effects of LULC change on erosion and sedimentation. Forest fires that clear significant areas of vegetation are often followed by mudslides when heavy rains occur (Meyer *et al*. 2001). After the fire the vegetation that once held sediment in place no longer exists and the top layers of soil can be carried downstream by overland runoff.

Deforestation results in a similar process, although in some cases it may occur on longer time scales. Even in areas where land cover remains the same, a change in land use practice can alter the sediment retention capacity of the landscape. For example, moving from no-till to till agriculture has been shown to increase the rate of soil erosion. The continuous accumulation of increased sediment loads as a result of changes in LULC can cause serious problems such as increasing siltation rate, and increasing dredging costs that were not anticipated during the original design of reservoir infrastructure, maintenance and operation plans.

To reduce the damages and costs associated with sedimentation, land, water and reservoir managers require information regarding the extent to which different parts of a landscape contribute to sediment retention, and how land use changes may affect this retention. Such information can support decisions by government agencies, businesses, and NGOs. For example, a power company operating a hydropower reservoir may elect to conserve upstream forests that maintain a sediment retention service if the cost of conserving the forests is less than the costs of reduced hydropower potential, sediment removal, and dam replacement. Maps showing which forest parcels offer the greatest sediment retention benefits would help the power company maximize returns on their investment. InVEST aims to provide these kinds of information.The outputs from these models will allow planners and managers to consider how LULC change in one area in the watershed can cause sedimentation problems at other locations.

The Model

The Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation model provides the user with a tool for calculating the average annual soil loss from each parcel of land, determining how much of that soil may arrive at a particular point of interest, estimating the ability of each parcel to retain sediment, and assessing the cost of removing the accumulated sediment on an annual basis. An important determinant of soil retention capacity is land use and land cover. To identify a land parcel's potential soil loss and sediment transport, the InVEST Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation model uses the Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) (Wischmeier & Smith 1978) which integrates information on LULC patterns and soil properties, as well as a digital elevation model, rainfall and climate data. Using additional data on reservoir location and the avoided cost of sediment removal, it values a land parcel's capacity to retain sediments. The avoided cost of sediment removal is the savings due to the reduced need for sediment removal as a result of upland vegetation and watershed land use practices. To optimize watershed planning, the model allows comparison of avoided sediment removal costs for different land management scenarios.

How it works

First, we estimate the potential for soil loss based on geomorphological and climate conditions. The model is based on the USLE, and represents the first four factors in the equation (rainfall erosivity, soil erodibility, and the length-slope factor). This part of the model accounts for two key relationships. In areas where rainfall intensity is high, there is a high chance that soil particles will become detached and transported by overland runoff. Also, in areas where the soil has a high proportion of sand, the erodibility is going to be low which means soil particles are easily detached from the soil pack and transported by overland runoff.

The Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) provides the foundation of the biophysical step of the InVEST sediment retention model.

USLE =R x K x LS x C x P (from Wischmeier & Smith, 1978)

where*R is the rainfall erosivity, K is the soil erodibility factor, LS is the slope length-gradient factor, C is the crop/vegetation and management factor and P is the support practice factor*.

The Slope Length Factor (LS) is one of the most critical parameters in the USLE. Slope length is the distance from the origin of overland flow along its flow path to the location of either concentrated flow or deposition. It reflects the indirect relationship between slope and land management (terracing, ditches, buffers, barriers). The LS factor is essentially the distance that a drop of rain/sediment runs until its energy dissipates. It represents a ratio of soil loss under given conditions compared to a reference site with the "standard" slope of 9% and slope length of 72.6 feet. The steeper and longer the slope is, relative to the conditions of the reference site, the higher the risk for erosion will be (for more information see http://www.omafra.gov.on.ca/english/engineer/facts/00-001.htm). The estimates of slope-length are based on methodology in a model called N-SPECT such that abrupt changes in slope result in length cutoffs. *Adjustments are necessary when slope is greater than 9% and slope length is different than 72.6 feet (22.12m).* In the model, different LS equations are automatically used for slope conditions that differ from the standard reference site conditions of the USLE equation development.

For low slopes: (The slope threshold should be specified as a model input and depends on the geomorphology and watershed characteristics)

$$LS = \left(\frac{flowacc * cellsize}{22.13}\right)^{nn} \left(\left(\frac{\sin(slope * 0.01745}{0.09}\right)^{1.4}\right) * 1.6$$

$$nn = \begin{cases} 0.5, slope >= 5\% \\ 0.4, 3.5 < slope < 5\% \\ 0.3, 1 < slope, = 3.5\% \\ 0.2, slope <= 1\% \end{cases}$$

where *flowacc* is accumulated water flow to each cell and *cellsize* is the pixel size or the grid resolution (10m, 30m, 90m, etc.) .

For high slopes: The slope threshold that the model uses to switch between the equation above and the following equation is specified as a model input and depends on the local geomorphology and watershed characteristics. We use the following equation, defined by Huang and Lu (1993) for areas with slopes higher than the threshold identified by the user:

$$LS = 0.08\lambda^{0.35} prct\_slope^{0.6}$$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} cellsize, flowdir = 1, 4, 16 or 64 \\ 1.4 * cellsize, otherflowdir \end{cases}$$

where *prct_slope* is the pixel's percent slope and *flowdir* is the flow direction of the pixel

Calculation of Potential Soil Loss

We estimate the ability of vegetation to keep soil in place on a give parcel by comparing erosion rates on that parcel to what erosion rates would be on that parcel with no vegetation present (bare soil). The bare soil estimate is calculated as follows:

$$RKLS = R \times K \times LS$$

Erosion from the parcel with existing vegetation is calculated by the USLE equation:

$$USLE = R \times K \times LS \times C \times P$$

Avoided erosion (sediment retention) on the parcel is then calculated by subtracting USLE from RKLS.

Vegetation does not only keep sediment from eroding where it grows. It also traps sediment that has eroded upstream. The USLE equation overlooks this component of sediment dynamics, so we attempt to account for it as follows. All soil that the USLE equation estimates will erode is routed downstream via a flowpath. We estimate how much of the sediment eroded on all parcels will be trapped by downstream vegetation based on the ability of vegetation in each parcel to capture and retain sediment. The model also determines the total sediment load exported that reaches the stream from each pixel on the landscape. The table below describes how the removal of sediment by vegetation along hydrologic flowpaths is done:

Cell	Vegetation retention	USLE	Retained by Cell (retained)	Outflow quantity (OQ) from Cell (Gi=1-Ei)
1	E1	USLE1	0	USLE1
2	E2	USLE2	USLE1.E2	USLE1.G2+USLE2
3	E3	USLE3	((USLE1.G2+USLE2).E3	(USLE1.G2+USLE2).G3+USLE3
4	E4	USLE4	USLE1.G2.G3.E4+ USLE2.G3.E4+ USLE3.E4	USLE1.G2.G3.G4+ USLE2.G3.G4+ USLE3.G4+ USLE4

The total retained sediment (tot_retain_x) is equal to the sum of the sediment removed by the pixel itself and the sediment removed through routing filtration.

The reservoir dead volume is designed to be filled completely at the end of the life time of the reservoir then the reservoir will loose its service in generating hydropower. We are assuming that each pixel on the landscape has the allowance of sediment equal to the dead volume divided by the

time span of the reservoir and the number of cells in the reservoir watershed (max_allowance) to export the reservoir. So the portion of the sediment retention that the pixel will be valued at is the result of the subtraction of this max_allowance from the total retention.

The valuation model uses the cost of sediment removal per m^3 entered by the user to determine the avoided cost per tons of sediment retained by the landscape.
The following equation is used to determine the value each pixel contributes to reservoir maintenance by helping to avoid erosion.

$$PVSR_x = \sum_{t'}^{T-1} \frac{SEDREM_x \times MC}{(1+r)^t}$$

where $PVSR_x$ is the present value of sediment retention on pixel x over T years, where T indicates the period of time over which the LULC pattern is constant or the length of the reservoir life length, $SEDREM_x$ is tot_retain minus max_allowance for pixel x, and MC is the marginal cost of sediment removal. This cost may vary across reservoirs in a single watershed if different technologies are employed for sediment removal at different reservoirs. If this is the case, the user may input reservoir-specific removal costs. The marginal cost of sediment removal should be measured in units of monetary currency per cubic meter (i.e. $\$/m^3$). The discount rate is r.

Limitations and simplifications

Although the USLE method is a standard way to calculate soil loss, it has several limitations. The USLE method predicts erosion from sheet wash alone (erosion from plains in gentle slopes) (FAO 2002). Rill-inter-rill, gullies and/or stream-bank erosion/deposition processes are not included in this model.. As such, it is more applicable to flatter areas because it has only been verified in areas with slopes of 1 to 20 percent. Moreover, the relationship between rainfall intensity and kinetic energy may not hold in mountainous areas because it has only been tested in the American Great Plains. Finally, the equation considers only the individual effect of each variable. In reality, some factors interact with each other, altering erosion rates.

Another simplification of the model is the grouping of LULC classes because the model's results are highly sensitive to the categorization of LULC classes. If there is a difference in land use between two areas within the same broad LULC category, it is recommended to create two LULC categories. For example, if all forest is combined into one LULC class, the difference in soil retention between an old growth forest and a newly planted forest is neglected. More generally, where there is variation across the landscape that affects a USLE parameter, the LULC classes should reflect that variation.

Third, the model relies on retention or filtration efficiency values for each LULC type. However, there are often few data available locally for filtration rates associated with local LULC types. Data from other regions may be applied in these cases, but may misrepresent filtration by local

LULC types.

Additionally, the model may not accurately depict the sedimentation process in the watershed of interest since the model is based on parameterization of several different equations and each parameter describes a stochastic process. Due to the uncertainty inherent in the processes being modeled, it is not recommended to make large-scale area decisions based on a single run of the model. Rather, the model functions best as an indicator of how land use changes may affect the cost of sediment removal, and like any model is only as accurate as the available input data. A more extensive study may be required for managers to calculate a detailed cost-benefit analysis for each reservoir site.

Another assumption is that sediment retention upstream from a reservoir is valuable only if sediment delivery impacts reservoir function, which incurs a cost. If sediment is not removed from a reservoir, the model does not assign a value to the sediment retention service. In this case, the user may assign a value to upstream sediment retention based on an assumed trajectory of sediment deposition at the reservoir. This method is explained below and it not included in this model. As noted above, we are only modeling sheetwash erosion, meaning that our estimate of annual reservoir sedimentation will be less than actual sedimentation rates. Nonetheless, it is possible to use information about the sediment volume in the reservoir at time t, V_t , and the volume at which reservoir function will be impacted, V_D , to estimate the time period over which sediment removal will occur. If the user is able to provide accurate estimates of V_t and V_D, then it is likely that information about annual deposition is available as well. Let $SEDDEP_t$ represent the total volume of sediment (USLE) assumed to reach the reservoir in a given year. Then we can model the time path of sediment as $V_{t+1} = SEDDEP_t + V_t$, and we can define the year at which removal will commence, *t'*, as the first period for which $V_t > V_D$. In this case, let the value of sediment retention on the upstream parcel *x* be given by $PVSR_{x \in d} = \sum_{t=t'}^{T-1} \frac{SEDREM_{jx} \times MC_d}{(1+r)^t}$

where, $PVSR_x$ is the present value of sediment retention on pixel *x* over *T* years, where *T* indicates the period of time over which the LULC pattern is constant or the length of the reservoir life length. $SEDREM_x$ is the sediment removed by the LULC on pixel *x*. *MC* is the marginal cost of sediment removal. *r* is the discount rate.

The accuracy of the sediment retention value is limited by two factors. First, it is limited by the quality of information of the cost of sediment removal. Up-to-date estimates of sediment removal costs for an area may be difficult to find. The user may be limited to using an outdated average value from other locations and for a different type of reservoir. Second, the accuracy of the model is limited by the user's ability to calibrate it with actual sedimentation data. The model allows for a calibration constant to be applied and adjusted via the Sediment Delivered output. This can greatly improve the model, but only if the user has access to reliable sedimentation data for the watershed(s) of interest.

Data needs

There are nine required data inputs for this model and one optional input (required for valuation). See the appendix for detailed information on data sources and pre-processing. For all raster

inputs, the projection used should be defined, and the projection's linear units should be in meters.

1. Digital elevation model (DEM) (required). A GIS raster dataset with an elevation value for each cell. Make sure the DEM is corrected by filling in sinks, and if necessary 'burning' hydrographic features into the elevation model (recommended when you see unusual streams.) See the Working with the DEM section of this manual for more information.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with elevation value for each cell given in meters above sea level.
Sample data set: C:\Invest\Base_Data**dem**

2. Rainfall erosivity index (R) (required). R is a GIS raster dataset, with an erosivity index value for each cell. This variable depends on the intensity and duration of rainfall in the area of interest. The greater the intensity and duration of the rain storm, the higher the erosion potential.
The erosivity index is widely used, but in case of its absence, there are methods and equations to help generate a grid using climatic data. See the Appendix for further details.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with a rainfall erosivity index value for each cell given in $MJ*mm*(ha*h*yr)^{-1}$.
Sample data set: C: \Invest\Sedimentation\Input**erosivity**

3. Soil erodibility (K) (required). K is a GIS raster dataset, with a soil erodibility value for each cell. Soil erodibility, K, is a measure of the susceptibility of soil particles to detachment and transport by rainfall and runoff.

> Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
> Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with a soil erodibility value for each cell. K is in $T.ha.h.\ (ha.MJ.mm)^{-1}$.
> **Sample data set**: C:\Invest\Sedimentation\Input**erodibility**

4. Land use/land cover (LULC) (required). LULC is a GIS raster dataset, with an integer LULC code for each cell.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters
Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.) These codes must match LULC codes in the Biophysical table (see below).
Sample data set: C:\Invest\Base_Data**landuse_90**

5. Sub-watersheds (required). This is a GIS raster dataset that contains one watershed or corresponding multiple sub-watersheds for each point of interest for the sediment valuation model. These points represent reservoirs or other types of structures where sedimentation is an issue of concern. The sub-watersheds are delineated within each watershed contributing to these points of

interest.

Due to limitations in ArcMap geoprocessing, the maximum size of a watershed or sub-watershed to be processed in this model is approximately the equivalent of 4000x4000 cells, with cell size equal to the smallest cell size of your input layers.. If the whole watershed contributing to a point of interest is larger than this size, it will need to be divided into sub-watersheds that are each smaller. Then, the resulting sub-watershed layer should be entered here and the whole watershed layer should be used in the Watersheds input. If the whole watershed is smaller, then it does not need to be divided, and the same watershed layer should be entered for both Sub-watersheds and Watersheds inputs. Sub-watersheds will be mosaiced back together into whole watersheds for the final output.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters.
Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), where the Value field contains a unique integer ID value for each sub-watershed.
Sample data set: C:\Invest\Base_Data**subwatersheds**

6. Watersheds (required). A GIS raster dataset that contains one watershed for each point of interest for the sediment valuation model. These points represent reservoirs or other types of structures where sedimentation is an issue of concern. The watersheds are delineated for these points of interest. See **Sub-watersheds** above for more information on watershed size requirements.

Name: File can be named anything, but no spaces in the name and less than 13 characters.
Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), where the Value field contains a unique integer ID value for each watershed, which corresponds to the watershed/reservoir ID field in the Sediment Reservoir input table.
Sample data set: C:\Invest\Base_Data**watersheds**

7. Biophysical table (required). A table containing model information corresponding to each of the land use classes. NOTE: these data are attributes of each LULC class, not each cell in the raster map.

Name: Table names should only have letters, numbers and underscores, no spaces
File type: *.dbf or *.mdb
Rows: Each row is a land use/land cover class.
Columns: Each column contains a different attribute of each land use/land cover class and must be named as follows:

a. *lucode* (Land use code): Unique integer for each LULC class (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.), must match the LULC raster above.
b. *LULC_desc*: Descriptive name of land use/land cover class (optional)
c. *usle_c:* Cover and management factor for the USLE. This value is given in the table as an integer by multiplying the C factor by 1000.
d. *usle_p:* Management practice factor for the USLE. This value is given in the table as

an integer by multiplying the P factor by 1000.

c. *sedret_eff:* The sediment retention value for each LULC class, as an integer percent between zero and 100. This field identifies the capacity of vegetation to retain sediment, as a percentage of the amount of sediment flowing into a cell from upslope. In the simplest case, when data for each LULC type are not available, a value of 100 may be assigned to all natural vegetation types (such as forests, natural pastures, wetlands, or prairie), indicating that 100% of sediment is retained. An intermediary value also may be assigned to features such as contour buffers. All LULC classes that have no filtering capacity, such as pavement, can be assigned a value of zero.

Sample data set: C: \Invest\Base_Data\Water_Tables.mdb**Biophysical_Models**

8. Threshold flow accumulation (required). The number of upstream cells that must flow into a cell before it's considered part of a stream. Used to define streams from the DEM. The model's default value is 1000. This value is to define and create the stream lines. If the user has a map of streams in the watershed of interest, he/she should compare it the V_stream map (output of the model). This value also needs to be well estimated in watersheds where ditches are present. This threshold expresses where hydraulic routing is discontinued and where retention stops and the remaining pollutant will be exported to the stream.

9. Slope threshold (required). An integer slope value describing landscape characteristics such as slope management practices including terracing and slope stabilization techniques. It depends on the DEM resolution and the terracing practices used in the region. In so many cases around the world, farmers cultivate slopes without any terracing or slope stabilization but after certain slope limit, terraces become necessary. This limit could be taken as this slope threshold. A good understanding, knowledge and familiarity with the regional landscape will help the user to determine this parameter. The model's default value is 25. This threshold could a subject for calibration.

10. Sediment table (optional – required for valuation). A table containing valuation information for each of the reservoirs. There must be one row for each watershed in the Watersheds layer.

Name: Table names should only have letters, numbers and underscores, no spaces
File type: *.dbf or *.mdb
Rows: Each row is a reservoir or structure that corresponds to the watersheds raster.
Columns:

a. *wshed_id* (watershed ID): Unique integer value for each reservoir, which must correspond to values in the Watersheds raster.

b. *cost*:: Cost of sediment removal in $ (Currency) / m^3 removed. Floating point value.

c. *dead_vol:* The volume of water below the turbine. It is a design dimension below which water is not available for any use and it's designed to store (deposit) sediment without hindering turbine and reservoir hydropower functions.

d. time_span: Integer time period to be used in calculating Present Value (PV) of removal costs. This time period should be the remaining designed lifetime of the structure. For instance, if you are using an LULC map for the year 2000 and a reservoir of interest

was designed in 1950 for a 100-year lifetime, the time period entered here should be 50 years.

e. *discount:* The rate of discount over the time span, used in net present value calculations. Floating point value.

Sample data set: C: \Invest\Base_Data\Water_Tables.mdb**Sediment**

Running the Model

The Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation model maps the soil loss, sediment exported, sediment retained, and value of sediment retention on the landscape. This model is structured as a toolkit which has two tools. The first tool, Soil Loss, produces multiple outputs, including USLE, sediment retained by the landscape and sediment exported to the stream. One of these output values feed into the next portion of the model, the Valuation tool, which calculates sediment retention value. By running the tool, three folders will automatically be created in your workspace (you will have the opportunity to define this file path): "Intermediate", where temporary files are written and which is deleted after each tool run; "Service", where results that show ecosystem services are saved (such as sediment retention); and "Output", where non-service biophysical results are saved (such as sediment export.)

Before running the Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation Model, make sure that the InVEST toolbox has been added to your ArcMap document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this manual. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*.

- Identify workspace

  If you are using your own data, you need to first create a workspace, or folder for the analysis data, on your computer hard-drive. The entire pathname to the workspace should not have any spaces. All your output files will be saved here. For simplicity, you may wish to call the folder for your workspace 'Sediment' and create a folder in your workspace called "Input" and place all your input files here. It's not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but advisable so you can easily see the data you use to run your model.

  Or, if this is your first time using the tool and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/**Sediment**. This folder will be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/Sediment/**Input** and in /Invest/**Base_Data**.

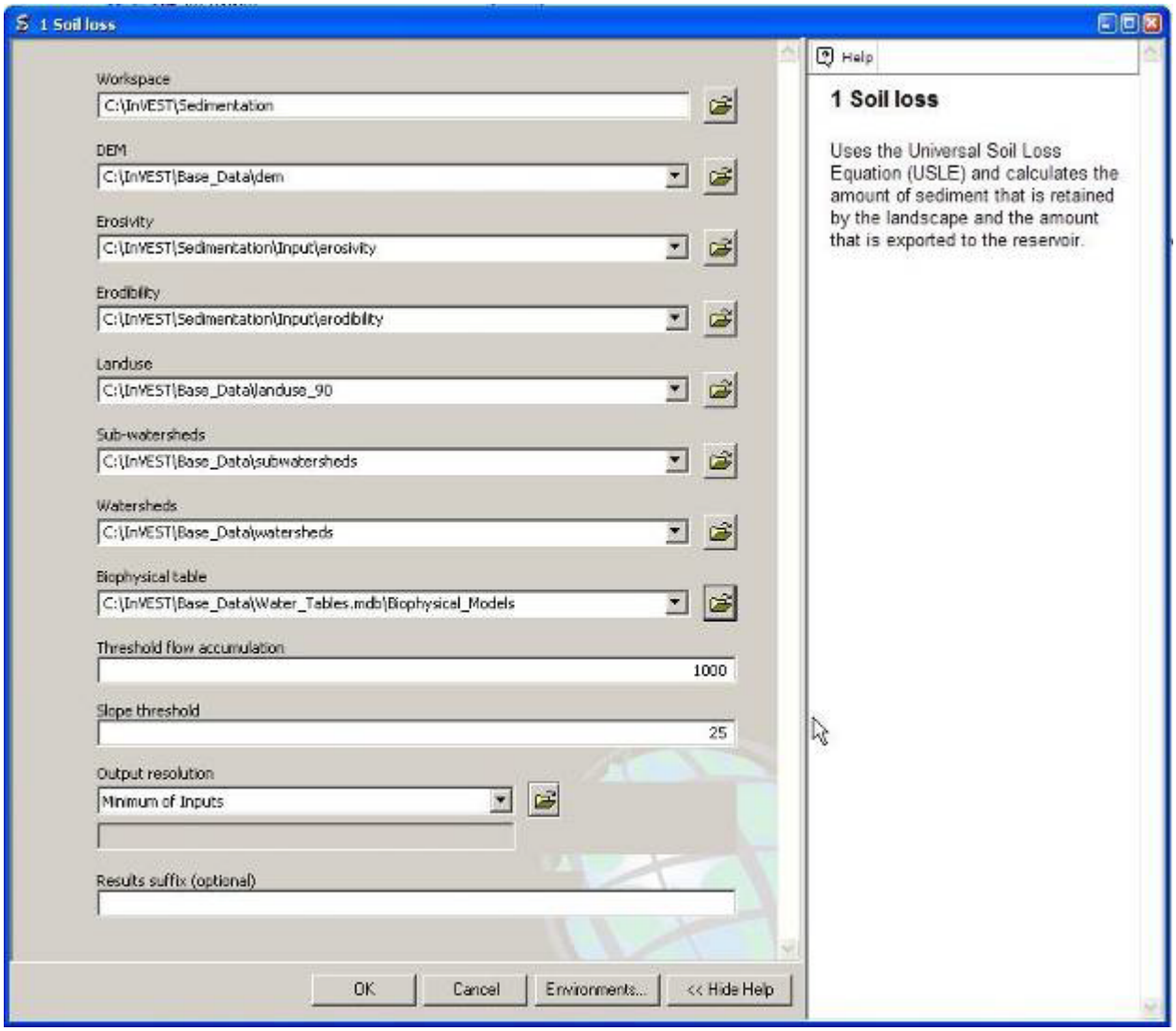
- Open an ArcMap document to run your model.

- Find the InVEST toolbox in ARCToolbox. ARCToolbox is normally open in ARCMap, but if it is not, click on the ARCToolbox symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you don't see the InVEST toolbox and need instructions on how to add it.

- You can run this analysis without adding data to your map view, but usually it is recommended to view your data first and get to know them. Add the data for this analysis to your map using the ADD DATA button and look at each file to make sure it is formatted correctly. Save your ARCMap file as needed.

- Click once on the plus sign on the left side of the INVEST toolbox to see the list of tools expand. Next, click on the plus sign next to the Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation toolset. Within the toolset are two tools, Soil Loss and Valuation. You will need to run Soil Loss first to generate layers that will feed into Valuation.

- Double click on Soil Loss. An interface will pop up like the one below. The tool shows default file names, but you can use the file buttons to browse instead to your own data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. **Click Show Help if the description isn't showing by default.** In addition, refer to the ***Data Needs*** section above for information on data formats.



- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires you to enter some data.

- After you've entered all values as required, click on OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue".

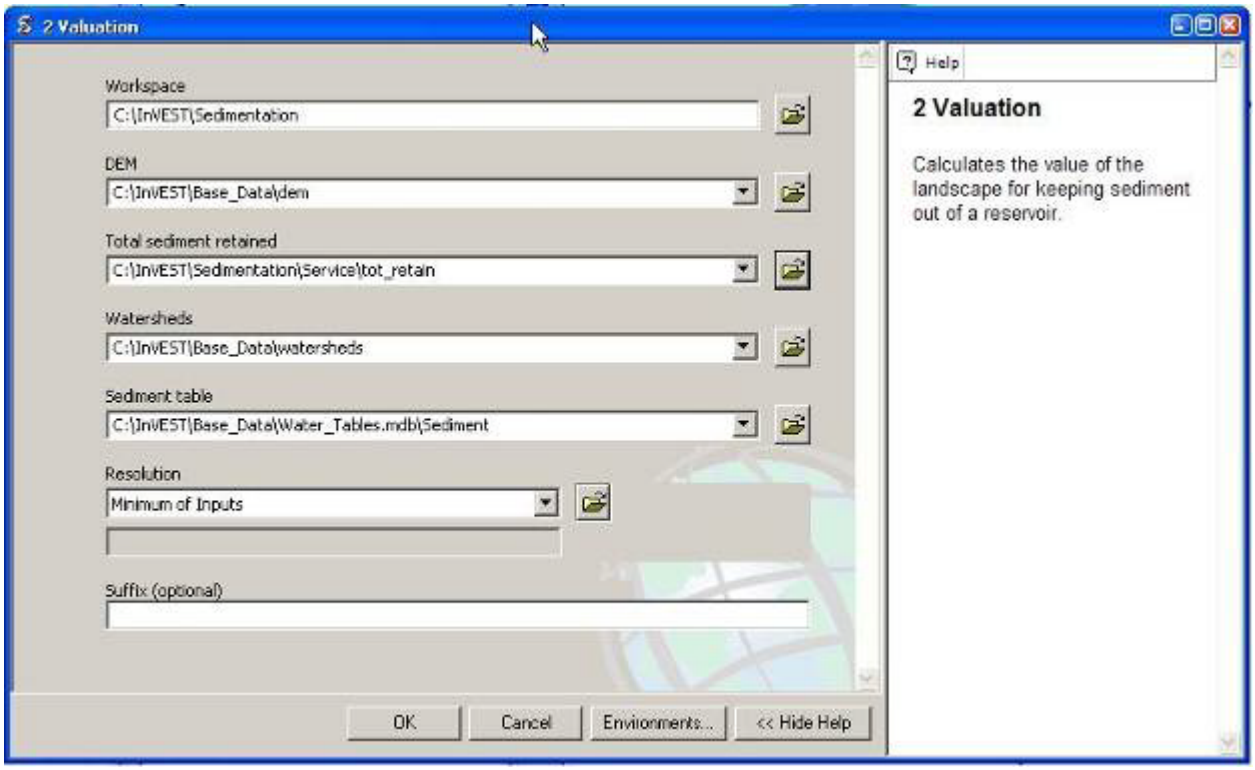
- Upon successful completion of the model, you will see new folders in your workspace called "Intermediate", "Service" and "Output". These folders contain several raster grids. These grids are described in the next section.

- Load the output grids into ARCMap using the ADD DATA button.

- You can change the symbology of a layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the table of contents, selecting PROPERTIES, and then SYMBOLOGY. There are many options here to change the way the file appears in the map.

- You can also view the attribute data of output files by right clicking on a layer and selecting OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

- Now, run the Valuation Tool. One output from the Soil Loss model, Total Sediment Retained ('tot_retain') is an input to this model and is found in the Service folder. The interface is below:



- When the script completes running, they will also be placed into the "Service" folder. A description of the files is below.

- Since this model is open source, the user can edit the scripts to modify, update, and/or change equations by right clicking on the script's name and selecting "Edit…" The script will then open in a text editor. After making changes, click File/Save to save your new script.

Interpreting Results

The following is a short description of each of the outputs from the Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation model, all of which are automatically saved into the "Outputs" folder in your workspace:

Output**LS(m):** Depicts length-slope factor. Values of 0 to 7.8 are typical for uninterrupted slope lengths of ~900 m for percent slopes of 0 -10%. For slopes greater than 20%, LS values should not be higher than 45 m. Values should be tested and verified to the real world landscape characteristics. Knowledge of the hydrologic processes and the watershed terrain characteristics will help test these values. Multiple runs by changing slope threshold, Length-slope power variable, Length-slope multiplication variable and stream threshold will help adjust LS.

Output**RKLS(tons):** Potential soil loss. This is the potential loss under the natural conditions for bare soil where vegetation is absent. This value will represent the impacts of natural conditions, soil properties, climate/rain characteristics and slope on soil erosion. Units are tons/ha.

Output**USLE(tons):** 'Actual' potential soil loss, taking into account land use and cultivation practices. Average annual soil loss in $tons.ha^{-1}$. The mean USLE for the whole watershed will be an output field in the Sediment table. USLE will be less than RKLS.

Output**Cell_Ret(tons)**: the sediment retained by LULC on the pixel itself. This is equal to RKLS minus ULSE.

watershed_sediment.dbf: Table containing the total sediment exported (Tot_Sed) to the outlet of each watershed. This Tot_Sed will be compared to any observed sediment loading at the outlet of the watershed. Knowledge of the hydrologic regime in the watershed and the contribution of the sheetwash yield into total sediment yield help adjust and calibrate this model.

Output**s_retain (Sediment Removed)(tons):** Raster containing the sediment removed

by each pixel on the landscape from the sediment loadings of the pixel upstream. This grid is the output of the sediment removal through routing filtration. It has the unit

Output**s_export(tons):** Raster containing the sediment load that will reach the stream from each pixel on the landscape. The cumulative of this raster values is equal to the Tot_Sed.

Output**s_cum_exp(tons):** Raster containing the cumulative of *s_export* in the watershed of interest. This map shows areas that contribute the most to the sediment loading within the watershed.

Output**ws_sedexp(tons):** Raster containing the total sediment loading exported to the outlet of the watershed (when summed, equal to Tot_Sed).

Service\Tot_retain(tons): Raster containing the total sediment retained by each pixel on the landscape. It is the sum of and cell_ret and s_retain. This raster is **THE MEASURE OF THIS ECOSYSTEM SERVICE IN BIOPHYSCIAL TERMS.** This raster is used in the valuation step.

Service\sed_value (Value of Sediment Removal): Raster showing the value ($(Currency) per pixel) of the landscape for retaining sediment by keeping it from entering the reservoir. **THIS IS THE MEASURE OF THIS ECOSYSTEM SERVICE IN ECONOMIC TERMS.**

The application of these results depends entirely on the objective of the modeling effort. Users may be interested in all of these results or select one or two. If sediment removal cost information is not available or valuation is not of interest, the user may use a value of one for the cost of sediment removal. This forces a unit cost of sediment removal, which normalizes the cost across the different reservoirs but still allows a relative comparison of scenarios.

The following provides more detail on each of the relevant model outputs. The length-slope factor depends solely on the geometry of the landscape, and, as the name infers, is simply a description of the length of the slopes in the watershed. The RKLS is the potential soil loss based on the length-slope factor, rainfall erosivity, and soil erodibility. These are factors that generally cannot be altered by human activity, as they are inherent to the watershed.

USLE differs from RKLS in that it takes into account the management practice factor and the cover factor. These are factors that can be altered with land use changes or changes in land management. Examples of changes that can alter the USLE output are forest clear cuts, changing crop type or type of agriculture (no till to tilled), expansion of an urban area, or restoring vegetation along a stream-bank. The model output describes this ‘actual’ soil loss on an annual basis in tons per hectare, summarized in a raster grid over the landscape.

The user should understand that this USLE method predicts the sediment from sheet wash alone. Rill-inter-rill, gullies and/or stream-bank erosion/deposition processes are not included in this model. A visit to the watershed and consultation of regional research results need to be used to

evaluate the portion of sheet wash in the total sediment loading that is used in testing and verifying this model.

Total Sediment exported to the outlet of the watershed (sediment delivered) indicates the volume of soil delivered each year. Since this model doesn't simulate the in-stream processes where erosion and deposition could have a major impact on this sediment delivered, the user should pay great attention to their importance while calibrating or adjusting this model. When soil deposition rates are known from observations at interest points, the user can aggregate the Sediment Delivered values (tons of sediment) and compare to observations. Remember that USLE only predicts sheet erosion (not landslide or roads induces or channel erosion), so a sediment budget (distribution of observed sediment yield into erosion types) must be performed to compare the correct measured sources of sediment with the model output.

The Value of Sediment Removal is a raster grid that displays the present value (in currency per pixel) of sediment retention on the landscape. In other words, it is the avoided cost of sediment removal at a downstream reservoir (over the reservoirs projected lifetime) due to the ability of the landscape to keep sediment in place. This raster grid provides valuable information to the decision maker on the relative importance of each part of the landscape in determining the cost of sediment removal for a particular reservoir. This output allows managers to see which parts of the landscape are providing the greatest value in terms of avoided sediment removal costs. They may want to protect, or at least avoid serious land use change, in these areas. Similarly, when scenarios of future land management are analyzed with this model, the Value of Sediment Removal layer can be used to identify where the benefits of avoided maintenance costs will be lost, maintained or improved across the landscape. Summarizing this layer across the landscape can also give an overall sense of the total costs that will be avoided given a particular landscape configuration.

The user should keep in mind that the Tier 1 model may not accurately depict the sedimentation process in the user's watershed of interest. Furthermore, the model is based on parameterization of several different equations, and each parameter describes a stochastic process. Due to the uncertainty inherent in the processes being modeled here, the user should not make large-scale decisions based on a single run of this model. The Avoided Reservoir Sedimentation model provides a first cut in prioritization and comparison of landscape management alternatives. A more detailed study is required for managers to calculate a specific benefit-cost analysis for each reservoir site. This model functions best as an indicator of how land use changes may affect the cost of sediment removal, and like any model is only as accurate as the available input data.

Appendix: data sources

This is a rough compilation of data sources and suggestions about finding, compiling, and formatting data. This section should be used for ideas and suggestions only. We will continue to update this section as we learn about new data sources and methods.

1. Digital elevation model (DEM)

DEM data is available for any area of the world, although at varying resolutions. Free raw global DEM data is available on the internet from the World Wildlife Fund - http://www.worldwildlife.org/freshwater/hydrosheds.cfm. NASA provides free global 30m DEM data at http://asterweb.jpl.nasa.gov/gdem-wist.asp. Or, it may be purchased relatively inexpensively at sites such as MapMart (www.mapmart.com). The DEM resolution is a very important parameter depending on the project's goals. For example, if decision makers need information about impacts of roads on ecosystem services then fine resolution is needed.

2. Rainfall erosivity index (R)

R should be obtained from published values, as calculation is very tedious. For calculation, R equals E (the kinetic energy of rainfall) times I30 (maximum intensity of rain in 30 minutes in cm/hr). Roose (1996) found that for Western Africa R = a * precipitation where a = 0.5 in most cases, 0.6 near the sea, 0.3 to 0.2 in tropical mountain areas, and 0.1 in Mediterranean mountain areas.

The following equation is widely used to calculate the R index (http://www.fao.org/docrep/t1765e/t1765e0e.htm):

$$R = E*I30 = (210 + 89 \log_{10} I30)*I30$$

E: kinetic energy of rainfall expressed in metric MJ× m/ha/cm of rainfall.
I30: maximum intensity of rain in 30 minutes expressed in cm per hour.

In the United States, national maps of the erosivity index can be found through the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) websites. The USDA published a loss handbook (http://www.epa.gov/npdes/pubs/ruslech2.pdf) that contains a hard copy map of the erosivity index for each region. Using these maps requires creating a new line feature class in GIS and converting to raster. Please note that conversion of units is also required (multiply by 17.02). The EPA has created a digital map that is available at http://www.epa.gov/esd/land-sci/emap_west_browser/pages/wemap_mm_sl_rusle_r_qt.htm . The map is in a shapefile format that needs to be converted to raster, along with an adjustment in units.

3. Soil erodibility (K)

Texture is the principal factor affecting K, but soil profile, organic matter and permeability also contribute. It varies from 70/100 for the most fragile soil and 1/100 for the most stable soil. It is measured on bare reference plots 22.2 m long on 9% slopes, tilled in the direction of the slope and having received no organic matter for three years. Values of 0 – 0.6 are reasonable, while higher values should be given a critical look. K may be found as part of standard soil data maps.

Coarse, yet free global soil characteristic data is available at http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/seg/cdroms/reynolds/reynolds/reynolds.htm. In the United States free soil data is available from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's NRCS in the form of two datasets: SSURGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/ssurgo/ and STATSGO http://soils.usda.gov/survey/geography/statsgo/ . Where available SSURGO data should be used, as it is much more detailed than STATSGO. Where gaps occur in the SSURGO data, STATSGO can be used to fill in the blanks.

The soil erodibility should be calculated as the average of all horizons within a soil class component, and then a weighted average of the components should be estimated. This can be a tricky GIS analysis: In the US soil categories, each soil property polygon can contain a number of soil type components with unique properties, and each component may have different soil horizon layers, also with unique properties. Processing requires careful weighting across components and horizons. The Soil Data Viewer (http://soildataviewer.nrcs.usda.gov/), a free ArcMap extension from the NRCS, does this soil data processing for the user and should be used whenever possible.

The following equation can be used to calculate K (Wischmeier and Smith 1978):

$$K = 27.66 * m\text{^}1.14 * 10\text{^}{-8} * (12 - a)) + (0.0043 * (b - 2)) + (0.0033 * (c - 3))$$

In which
K = soil erodibility factor (t*ha/MJ*mm)
m = (silt (%) + very fine sand (%))(100-clay (%))
a = organic matter (%)
b = structure code: (1) very structured or particulate, (2) fairly structured, (3) slightly structured and (4) solid
c = profile permeability code: (1) rapid, (2) moderate to rapid, (3) moderate, (4) moderate to slow, (5) slow and (6) very slow.

4. Land use/land cover

A key component for all water models is a spatially continuous landuse / land class raster grid. That is, within a watershed, all landuse / land class categories should be defined. Gaps in data will create errors. Unknown data gaps should be approximated. Global land use data is available from the University of Maryland's Global Land Cover Facility: http://glcf.umiacs.umd.edu/data/landcover/. This data is available in 1 degree, 8km and 1km resolutions.

The simplest categorization of LULCs on the landscape involves delineation by land cover only (e.g., cropland, temperate conifer forest, prairie). Several global and regional land cover classifications are available (e.g., Anderson et al. 1976), and often detailed land cover classification has been done for the landscape of interest.

A slightly more sophisticated LULC classification could involve breaking relevant LULC types into more meaningful types. For example, agricultural land classes could be broken up into different crop types or forest could be broken up into specific species. The categorization of land use types depends on the model and how much data is available for each of the land types. The user should only break up a land use type if it will provide more accuracy in modeling. For instance, for the sediment valuation model the user should only break up 'crops' into different crop types if they have information on the difference in soil characteristics between crop management values.

5. P and C coefficients

The management practice factor, P, accounts for the effects of contour plowing, strip-cropping or terracing relative to straight-row farming up and down the slope. The cover and management factor, C, accounts for the specified crop and management relative to tilled continuous fallow. Several references on estimating these factors can be found online:

- U.S. Department of Agriculture soil erosion handbook
  http://topsoil.nserl.purdue.edu/usle/AH_537.pdf

- USLE Fact Sheet
  http://www.omafra.gov.on.ca/english/engineer/facts/00-001.htm

- U.N. Food and Agriculture Organization
  http://www.fao.org/docrep/T1765E/t1765e0c.htm

The final PC coefficient used in the model should be P x C x 1000, to ensure integer values.

6. Watersheds

The watersheds should be delineated by the user, based on the location of reservoirs or other points of interest. Exact locations of specific structures, such as reservoirs, should be obtained from the managing entity or may be obtained on the web at sites such as the National Inventory of Dams (http://crunch.tec.army.mil/nidpublic/webpages/nid.cfm).

Watersheds that contribute to the points of interest must be generated. If known correct watershed maps exist, they should be used. Otherwise, watersheds can be generated in ArcMap using a hydrologically-correct digital elevation model. Due to limitations in ArcMap geoprocessing, the maximum size of a watershed that can be processed by the Nutrient Retention tool is approximately the equivalent of 4000x4000 cells. If the whole watershed contributing to a point of

interest is larger than this size, it will need to be divided into sub-watersheds that are each smaller. If the whole watershed is smaller, then it does not need to be divided. Sub-watersheds will be mosaicked back together into whole watersheds for the final output.

See the Working with the DEM section of this manual for more information on generating watersheds and sub-watersheds.

7. Sediment table

The estimated sediment removal cost from the reservoirs will ideally be based on the characteristics of each reservoir and regional cost data. The user should consult managers at the individual reservoirs or a local sediment removal expert. The technology available at each location may vary, and the applicability of the specific technologies depends on the storage capacity/mean annual runoff ratio and the storage capacity/Annual Sediment yield ratio.

Once a range of possible technologies has been established for each reservoir, the model user should investigate past sediment removal projects to determine appropriate costing. This may require calculating to present day value and taking into account that the technology may have improved, reducing the relative cost.

If local information is not available, pricing must be estimated using published information. Adjust costs to specific requirements, location, and present day value as needed.

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MANAGED TIMBER PRODUCTION MODEL

Summary

An important ecosystem service provided by forests is the production of timber. This model analyzes the amount and volume of legally harvested timber from natural forests and managed plantations based on harvest level and cycle. The valuation model estimates the economic value of timber based on the market price, harvest and management costs and a discount rate. and calculates its economic value. Limitations of the model include assumptions that timber harvest production, frequency, prices, and costs are constant over time.

Introduction

Commercial timber production is a valuable commodity provided by forests, with the potential to generate significant revenue for those with legal rights to harvest. The scale and nature of timber production varies from large privately-operated single-species plantations to small community-managed harvests from natural forest that retains its ecological structure and function. Whether timber production occurs on a managed plantation or a natural forest, managing the intensity and rate of timber harvest is critical to sustaining this service, as well as the supply and value of other services provided by forests, such as water purification, carbon sequestration, and bush meat habitat. Maximizing profits requires information about the volume and species of wood removed in each harvest period, timber prices, and management costs.

The Model

The model is designed for cases where an entity (e.g., a government, a tribe, a community, a private timber company) has a formally recognized right to harvest *roundwood* from a forest. According to FAOSTAT (http://faostat.fao.org/), roundwood is wood in its natural state as felled, or otherwise harvested, with or without bark, round, split, roughly squared or in other forms. It comprises all wood obtained from removals. This model's output maps the net present values of forests' legally recognized harvests over some user-defined time interval. This model is very

simple and designed for cases where little data on harvest practices and tree stand management exists. If you have access to detailed harvest and forest management data, you may want to use an alternative model.

Timber harvest by entities that do not have a formally recognized harvesting right is not accounted for in this model. This type of wood harvest, whether it is illegal or occurs in forest areas where property rights are either not defined or not well enforced, is dealt with in the Open Access Timber and Non-Timber Products Model (to be released soon).

How it works

This model can be used in one of two ways. First, it can be used to model the expected value of a stream of harvests from a forest plantation over a user-defined time interval. A forest plantation is typically managed in such a way that merchantable or usable wood can be harvested at regular periods over an indefinite period. Three characteristics of a plantation forest are: 1) species mix has been reduced to a single or a few of the fastest growing species; 2) the oldest wood in the plantation is harvested and the rest of the wood is left to mature; 3) the areas of a plantation that have been clear-cut are replanted with the managed species soon after the clear-cut; and 4) a more or less even distribution of tree ages (e.g., if the oldest trees in the stand are 20 years old, a quarter of the stand is 1-5 year old, a quarter of the stand is 6-10 years old, a quarter of the stand is 11-15 years old, and a quarter of the stand is 16-20 years old).

Second, the InVEST Managed Timber Production Model can be used to calculate the expected value of timber harvests from primary, natural forests. By primary, natural forests we mean areas that, at least at the beginning of a harvest cycle, retain much of their natural structure and function. These could include forests that, at least at the beginning of a harvest cycle, are being used by local communities and tribes for small-scale timber and non-timber forest product harvest. In some cases these forests may become subject to large scale timber harvest because they are to transition to more managed forests (i.e., forest plantations as described above) or some other non-forest development that requires a clear-cut, such as agricultural or residential expansion. (This does not include forests that are slashed and burned, given that the felled and burned wood is not used to create a product). In other cases, concessions to clear-cut certain areas of a natural forest or selectively log a natural forest may be held by entities. In these cases an altered version of the natural forest would remain on the landscape into the future. Examples of this type of harvest include logging of rainforests in the Amazon or Malaysia for land conversion or in Indonesia to establish palm plantations, and selective clear-cutting of rainforests in Malaysia.

The model runs on a vector GIS dataset that maps parcels on the landscape that are, or are expected to be, used for legal timber harvest over a user-defined time period. These timber parcels can include a whole forest or just part of a forest. In any case a parcel should only include the portion of a forest that is formally designated, zoned, or managed for harvest. Each timber harvest parcel is described by its harvest levels (*Harv_mass* and *Perc_Harv* in the polygon attribute table; see below), frequency of harvest (*Freq_harv*), and harvest and management (or maintenance) costs (*Harv_cost* and *Maint_cost*, respectively) (Fig. 1).

The timber parcel map can either be associated with a current (sometimes referred to as "base") LULC map used in most other InVEST models (where the year associated with the current LULC

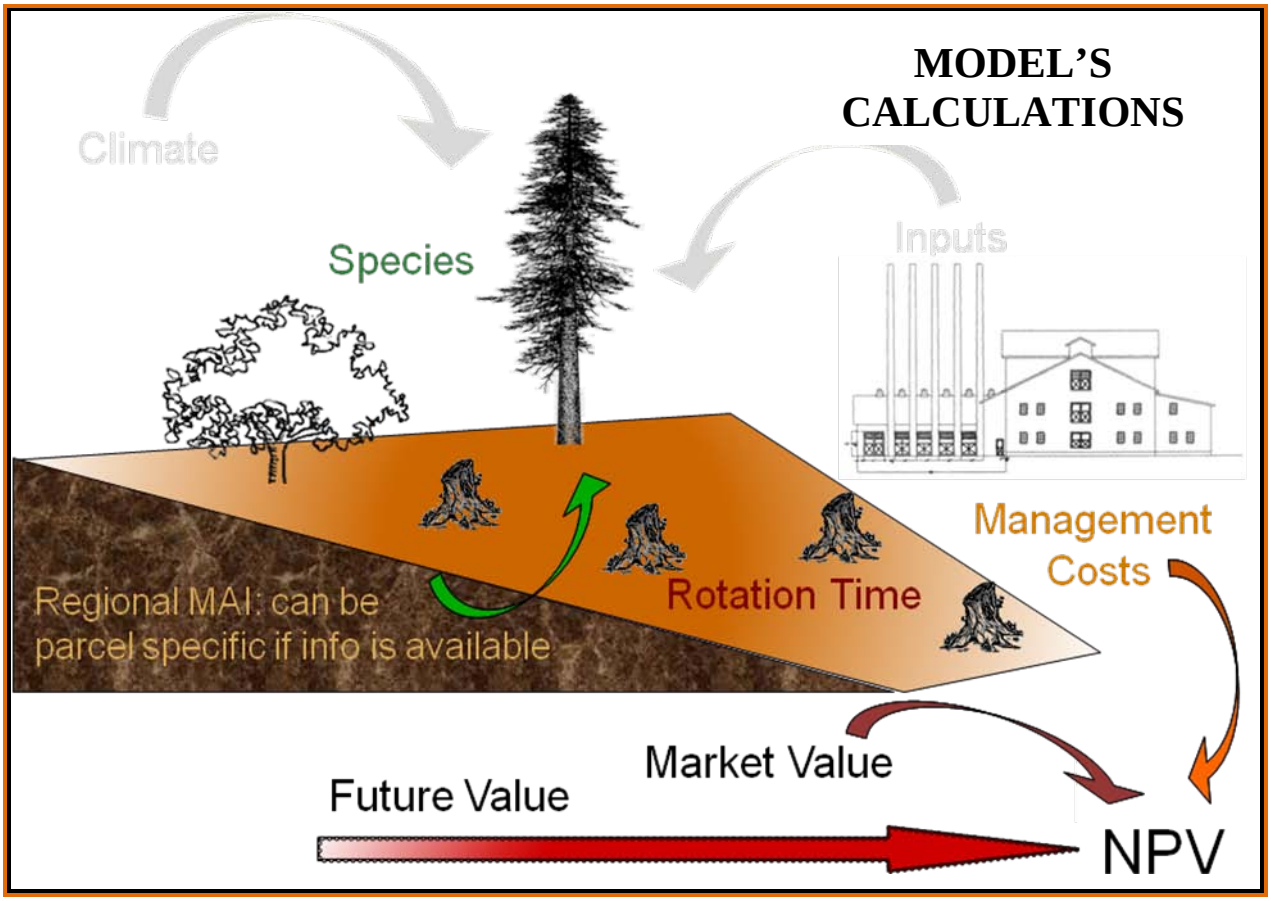


Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of the Managed Timber Production model. Parameters represented in color are included in the model, while those in gray are not.

map is given by *yr_cur*) or with some future LULC scenario map (where the year associated with the future LULC map is given by *yr_fut*). If the timber parcel map is associated with the current LULC map the model calculates, for each timber parcel, the net present value (NPV) of harvests that occurred between the current year and some user-defined date, assuming that harvest practices and prices are static over the time interval modeledl. If the timber parcel map is associated with a future scenario LULC map the model calculates, for each timber parcel, the NPV of harvests that occurred between the future date and some user-defined date, again assuming that harvest practices and prices do not change over the user-defined time interval. The model produces the NPV of harvests in the currency of either the current year or future year, depending on whether the user inputs a current or future LULC map. For example, if the selected year for the future scenario is 2050 and the dollar is the currency used to value timber harvests, then the NPV of harvests from 2050 to some user-defined later than 2050 is given in year 2050 dollars.

Limitations and simplifications

This model assumes that the percent of the forest harvested each harvest period, the mass of timber harvested each harvest period, the frequency of each harvest period, and harvested related prices and costs *remain constant* in each timber parcel over the user-defined time period. In reality, each of these variables can change from year to year. For example, the mix of species harvested from a forest could change from one harvest period to the next and this could affect everything from the amount of wood harvested to the composite price received for the timber. In addition, un-modeled disturbances, such as forest fires or disease, or occasional managed thinning can have a major impact on harvest levels from a forest parcels.

Some of these limitations can be addressed by constraining the length of the time period used to assess harvests in parcels. For example, if the current year is 2000 and only the expected harvests until 2010 are valued, any unaccounted changes in timber harvest management or price changes may be minor. At this point a future 2010 LULC and timber parcel map could be evaluated with the timber model looking 10 years ahead again, from 2010 to 2020. The future timber parcel map could include any changes in timber management and prices that occurred between 2000 and 2010. This process could be repeated for successive decades until, for example, 2050. Successive model runs with decadal time intervals until 2050, and the ability to change harvesting behavior and prices, will better approximate harvesting practices on the landscape than just running the model once from 2000 to 2050.

Further, given the expected variation in harvest management practices and prices over the modeled time interval, it is suggested that the user use mean values for each model input. The mean is typically the best summary of the distribution of expected values for a variable. For example, if it is known that harvests from a timber parcel over time will involve various species it is possible to set the timber price for that parcel equal to the average expected price for all harvested species.

Data needs

The model requires a GIS polygon file (a vector database) demarcating timber parcels. Unique timber parcels can be distinguished by differences in the percent of the parcel harvested each harvest period, the mass of wood removed each harvest period, the species of trees removed, or the costs of managing and harvesting wood from the parcel. These attributes, along with timber prices and the time interval for analysis, can be included as a table in the shapefile or as a separate table.

1. **Timber parcels (required)**. A GIS dataset (vector) that indicates the different timber parcels on the landscape. Each parcel should be given a unique identifier. The dataset should be projected in meters and the projection used should be defined.

    Name: file can be named anything

    File type: standard GIS polygon file (e.g., shapefile), with a unique identifier code for each polygon.

    Rows: each row is a timber parcel.

    Columns: Each parcel should be identified with a unique ID. The production table data containing attributes of the parcel can be included as part of the shapefile's attribute

table or as a separate table that is joined or related to the shapefile. Either way, the variables and parameters to include in the data table are described below.

Sample data set: \Invest\Timber\Input**plantation.shp**

2. **Production table (required)**. A table of information about the timber parcels on the landscape. This is a separate data table that can be joined to the polygon dataset in #1.

   Name: file can be named anything

   File type: *.dbf, or an attribute table as part of the timber parcel map.

   Rows: each row is a different parcel.

   Columns: contain an attribute for each parcel and must be named as follows:

   a. *Parcel_ID*: Same as timber parcel ID in #1. IDs must match the parcel IDs used in the polygon map. User must select this field as a model input.

   b. *Parcl_area*: The area of the timber parcel in hectares.

   c. *Perc_harv*: The proportion of the timber parcel area that is harvested each harvest period; units are integer percent.

   d. *Harv_mass*: The mass of wood harvested per hectare (in metric tons (Mg) ha^{-1}) in each harvest period.

   e. *Freq_harv*: The frequency of harvest periods, in years, for each parcel.

   f. *Price*: The marketplace value of the wood harvested from the parcel (Mg^{-1}). This price should reflect what is paid to the harvesters at mills or at other timber processing and collection sites. If a harvest includes multiple species, each with its own price, a weighted price should be used, where weights are given by the expected relative mix of the species in the harvest. Any value derived from pre-commercial thins should be included in *Maint_cost* (see below).

   g. *Maint_cost*: The annualized cost ha^{-1} of maintaining the timber parcel, if any. Costs may include the periodic costs to replant, treat and thin the stand, plus the cost to harvest, treat slash, and deliver wood to a processing facility. Other costs may include taxes, pest treatments, etc. If commercial thins before the main harvest produce product that has market value, the annual ha^{-1} value of these harvests should be subtracted from *Maint_cost*. If the harvest comes from a natural forest that is not managed for timber production *Maint_cost* may be 0. (Actual stand maintenance costs may vary from year to year in a forest (e.g., in some years portions of a managed stand may have to be thinned prior to harvest and in other years anti-pest measures may have to be employed), an annualized value "smoothes" this temporal variation in maintenance costs.)

   h. *Harv_cost*: The cost (ha^{-1}) incurred when harvesting *Harv_mass*.

   i. *T*: The number of years from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* that parcel harvests will be valued. If the parcel is in an even age rotation managed plantation, *T* can be any number, although as we explain below, we recommend against large *T*. If the harvest is expected to be an immediate one time clear cut $T = 1$. If a series of clear cuts in a natural forest are occurring or are expected, *T* can be no greater than the number of years that harvest of the natural stand can continue given *Perc_harv* and *Freq_harv*. For example, if a natural stand is going to be replanted as a single species plantation or allowed to regenerate naturally before being harvested again in the future, *T* for the harvest of the natural stand can be no larger than 7 if *Perc_harv* = 33.3 and *Freq_harv* = 3 (assuming a harvest

takes place in years 1 (*yr_cur* or *yr_fut* depending on the associated LULC map), 4, and 7).

j. *Immed_harv*: This attribute answers whether a harvest occurs immediately – whether a harvest occurs in *yr_cur*, or whether the user is evaluating a forest parcel associated with a future LULC scenario occurring in *yr_fut*. Answer yes (entered as YES or Y) or no (entered as No or N) to whether a harvest should be calculated for *yr_cur* or *yr_fut*. If yes, then the NPV of harvest in the parcel includes a harvest in *yr_cur*, otherwise the first harvest accounted for in the parcel's NPV occurs *Freq_harv* years into the into time interval *T*.

k. *BCEF*: An expansion factor that translates the mass of harvested wood into volume of harvested wood. The expansion factor is measured in Mg of dry wood per m^3 of wood. The expansion factor is a function of stand type and stand age (this factor is know as the biomass expansion factor in the literature). If you do not have data on this expansion factor you can use the $BCEF_R$ row in table 4.5 of IPCC (2006). Otherwise, set this expansion factor equal to 1 for each parcel.

Sample data set: \Invest\Timber\Input**plant_table.dbf**

3. **Market Discount Rate (optional – required for valuation)**. This number is not supplied in a table, but instead is input directly through a tool interface (Labeled "Market discount rate (%)" in the tool interface.) The market discount rate reflects society's preference for immediate benefits over future benefits (e.g., would you rather receive $10 today or $10 five years from now?). The tool's default value is 7% per year, which is one of the rates recommended by the U.S. government for evaluation of environmental projects (the other is 3%). However, this rate will differ depending on the country and landscape being evaluated. It can also be set to 0% if so desired.

To calculate NPV for a forest parcel a series of equation are used. First, we calculate the net value of a harvest during a harvest period in timber parcel *x*,

$$VH_x = \frac{Perc\_harv_x}{100}\left(Price_x \times Harv\_mass_x - Harv\_cost_x\right) \qquad (1)$$

where VH_x is the monetary value (ha^{-1}) generated during a period of harvest in *x*, $Perc\_harv_x$ is the percentage of *x* that is harvested in each harvest period (converted to a fraction), $Price_x$ is the market price of a Mg of timber extracted from *x*, $Harv\_mass_x$ is the Mg ha^{-1} of wood removed from parcel *x* during a harvest period, and $Harv\_cost_x$ is the cost (ha^{-1}) of removing and delivering $Harv\_mass_x$ to a processing facility or transaction point. In general, $Harv\_mass_x$ will be given by the aboveground biomass (Mg ha^{-1}) content of the forest stand less any portion of the stand that is left as waste (e.g., stems, small braches, bark, etc.). For example, assume a company plans to clear-cut 10% of a native forest block in each harvest period, $Price_x$ is expected to be \$10 Mg^{-1}, $Harv\_mass_x$ is 800 Mg ha^{-1}, and $Harv\_cost_x$ = \$5,000 ha^{-1}. The net value created during a harvest period is given by,

$$VH_x = 0.1 \times (10 \times 800 - 5000) = 300. \qquad (2)$$

A harvest period is a sustained period of harvest followed by a break in extraction. Plantation forests tend to have a harvest period every year. More natural forests may have more

intermittent periods of harvest (e.g., a pulse of harvest activity every 3 years). The periodicity of harvest periods in parcel *x* is given by the variable $Freq\_harv_x$.

The variable $Freq\_harv_x$ is used to convert the per hectare value of the parcel (VH_x) into a stream of net harvest revenues, which is then aggregated and discounted appropriately. Specifically, the NPV (ha^{-1}) of a stream of harvests that engender VH_x intermittingly from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* to T_x years after *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* is given by:

$$NPV_x = \sum_{s=0}^{\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{T_x}{Freq\_harv_x}\right)-1} \frac{VH_x}{\left(1+\frac{r}{100}\right)^{(Freq\_harv_x \times s)}} - \sum_{t=0}^{T_x-1} \left(\frac{Mait\_cost_x}{\left(1+\frac{r}{100}\right)^{t}} \right) \qquad (3)$$

where "ru" means any fraction produced by T_x / $Freq\_harv_x$ is rounded up to the next integer, $Freq\_harv_x$ is the frequency (in years) of harvest periods, r is the market discount rate, and $Maint\_cost_x$ is the annualized cost (ha^{-1}) of managing parcel *x*. Continuing our earlier example, where VH_x = 300, if we set $Freq\_harv_x$ = 1 (a harvest period occurs every year), T_x equal to 10 (T_x can be no larger than 10 because the native forest will be completely gone in 10 years given $Perc\_harv_x$ = 10%), r equal to 7%, and $Maint\_cost_x$ equal to \$50 ha^{-1}, then the NPV of the stream of VH_x is,

$$NPV_x = \sum_{s=0}^{9} \frac{300}{1.07^{s}} - \sum_{t=0}^{9} \frac{50}{1.07^{t}} \qquad (4)$$

On the other hand, assume $Freq\_harv_x$ = 3 (a 10% harvest of the timber parcel occurs every 3 years) and all other variables are as before, then,

$$\begin{aligned} NPV_x &= \sum_{s=0}^{\mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{10}{3}\right)-1} \frac{300}{1.07^{3\times s}} - \sum_{t=0}^{9} \left(\frac{50}{1.07^{t}} \right) \\ &= \sum_{s=0}^{3} \frac{300}{1.07^{3\times s}} - \sum_{t=0}^{9} \left(\frac{50}{1.07^{t}} \right) \end{aligned} \qquad (5)$$

In other words, a harvest period occurs in years 1 (*yr_cur* or *yr_fut*), 4, 7, and 10 with annualized management costs incurred every year (where s = 0 refers to year 1, s = 1 refers to year 4, s = 2 refers to year 7 and s = 3 refers to year 10). Note that when using equation (3) we always assume a harvest period in *yr_cur* or *yr_fut*, the next occurs $Freq_x$ years later, the next 2 $\times Freq_x$ years later, etc.

Alternatively, if a harvest does not take place in *yr_cur* or *yr_fut*, and instead the first one is accounted for $Freq_x$ years into the time interval *T*, then we use the following equation,

$$NPV_x = \sum_{s=1}^{\mathrm{rd}\left(\frac{T_x}{Freq\_harv_x}\right)} \frac{VH_x}{\left(1+\frac{r}{100}\right)^{(Freq\_harv_x \times s)-1}} - \sum_{t=0}^{T_x-1} \left(\frac{Mait\_cost_x}{\left(1+\frac{r}{100}\right)^{t}} \right) \qquad (6)$$

where "rd" means any fraction produced by T_x / $Freq\_harv_x$ is rounded down to the next integer In this case, if $Freq\_harv_x$ = 3 and T_x = 10, then *x* experiences a harvest period in years 3, 6, and 9 of the time interval.

The selection of T_x and $Freq_x$ require some thought. First, if timber parcel x is expected to only experience one immediate harvest period (either in the base year with equation (3) or $Freq_x$-years into the time interval with equation (6)), then set $T_x = Freq_x = 1$. On the other hand, if parcel x is in an even-aged managed rotation, then the value of T_x can be set very high (we assume that harvests can be sustained indefinitely in such systems). However, we recommend against using large T_x values for any x for several reasons. First, in this model, timber price, harvest cost, and management cost are *static* over time. This may only be a reasonable assumption for short periods of time (e.g., 20 years). Second, in this model, timber management is static over time; again this may only be a reasonable assumption over short periods of time. Third, if natural forests are being transformed into plantations, a large T would require that we begin accounting for the eventual plantation harvests. This complication would make the model less tractable. Note that $Freq_x \leq T_x$ for all x.

Finally, the net present value of timber harvest for the entire area of parcel x from the base year to T_x years later is given by $TNPV_x$, where $Parcl\_area_x$ is the area (ha^{-1}) of parcel x:

$$TNPV_x = Parcl\_area_x \times NPV_x \qquad (7)$$

The last table entry, $BCEF_x$, is used to transform the total volume of wood removed from a parcel from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* to T years later ($TBiomass_x$). If $Immed\_harv_x = 1$ then,

$$TBiomass_x = Parcl\_area_x \times \frac{Perc\_harv_x}{100} \times Harv\_mass_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{T_x}{Freq\_harv_x}\right) \qquad (8)$$

Otherwise, if $Immed\_harv_x = 0$ then

$$TBiomass_x = Parcl\_area_x \times \frac{Perc\_harv_x}{100} \times Harv\_mass_x \times \mathrm{ru}\left(\frac{T_x}{Freq\_harv_x}\right) \qquad (9)$$

and

$$TVolume_x = TBiomass_x \times \frac{1}{BCEF_x} \qquad (10).$$

Example: Landscape with timber production in five parcels. In this example, the first two timber parcels are managed for timber production on a 45-year even-age rotation (1/45 of the stand is harvested and then replanted each year) in perpetuity, but have different mixes of species and different management costs. Each managed timber parcel is 1000 hectares. The third timber parcel has the same species mix as the second, but ¼ of the parcel is harvested every 20 years and it will only be managed for at least another 50 years. The fourth polygon is a clear-cut of a 500 ha natural forest that is slated to become a shopping mall. The fifth parcel represents a portion of a mature, primary forest. The parcel in the larger forest that will be used for timber production is 500 ha. It will be systematically clear-cut over the next ten years and then managed as a single species plantation indefinitely (we do not account for the plantation's expected revenues in this model).

Parcel_ ID	Parcl_ area	Perc_ harv	Freq_ harv	Harv_ mass	Price	Maint_ cost	Harv_ cost	T	Immed_ harv	BCEF
1	1000	2.22	1	80	300	190	50	50	Y	1
2	1000	2.22	1	70	200	260	124	50	Y	1
3	1000	25	20	70	200	310	225	50	N	1
4	500	100	1	95	350	180	45	1	Y	1
5	500	20	2	95	400	190	105	10	Y	1

Running the Model

Before running the Timber Model, first make sure that the INVEST toolbox has been added to your ARCMAP document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this manual. Second, make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*. Specifically, you will need (1) a shapefile or raster file showing the locations of different timber management zones in the landscape; (2) a table with data on harvest frequency and amount, and the price of timber and cost of harvest; and (3) the discount rate for timber, if other than the 7% US government estimate.

- Identify workspace

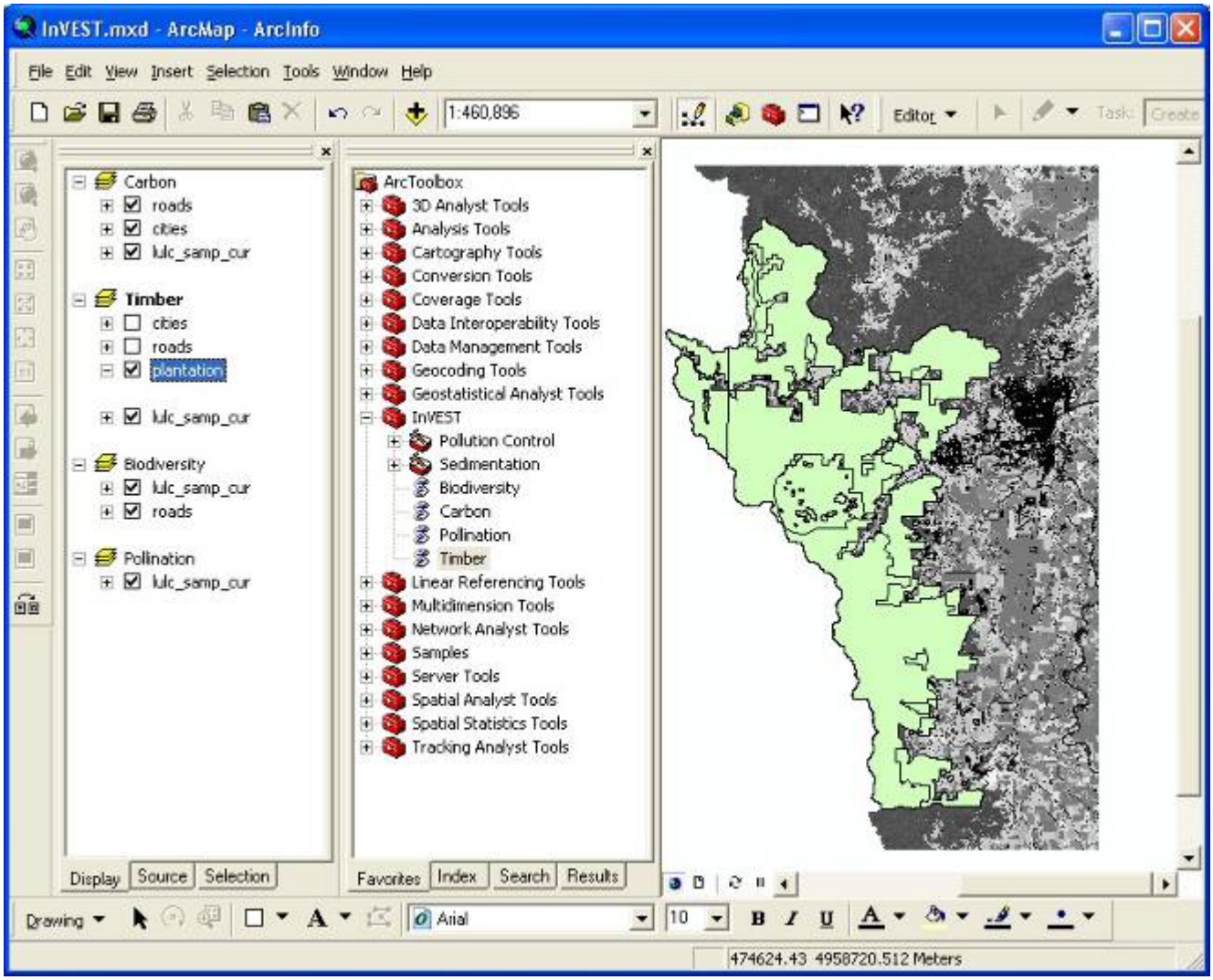
  If you are using your own data, you need to first create a workspace, or folder for the analysis data, on your computer hard-drive. The entire pathname to the workspace should not have any spaces. All your output files will be dumped here. For simplicity, you may wish to call the folder for your workspace "timber" and create a folder in your workspace called "input" and place all your input files here. It's not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but advisable so you can easily see the data you use to run your model.

  Or, if this is your first time using the tool and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/**timber**. This folder will be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/timber/**input** and in /Invest/**base_data**.

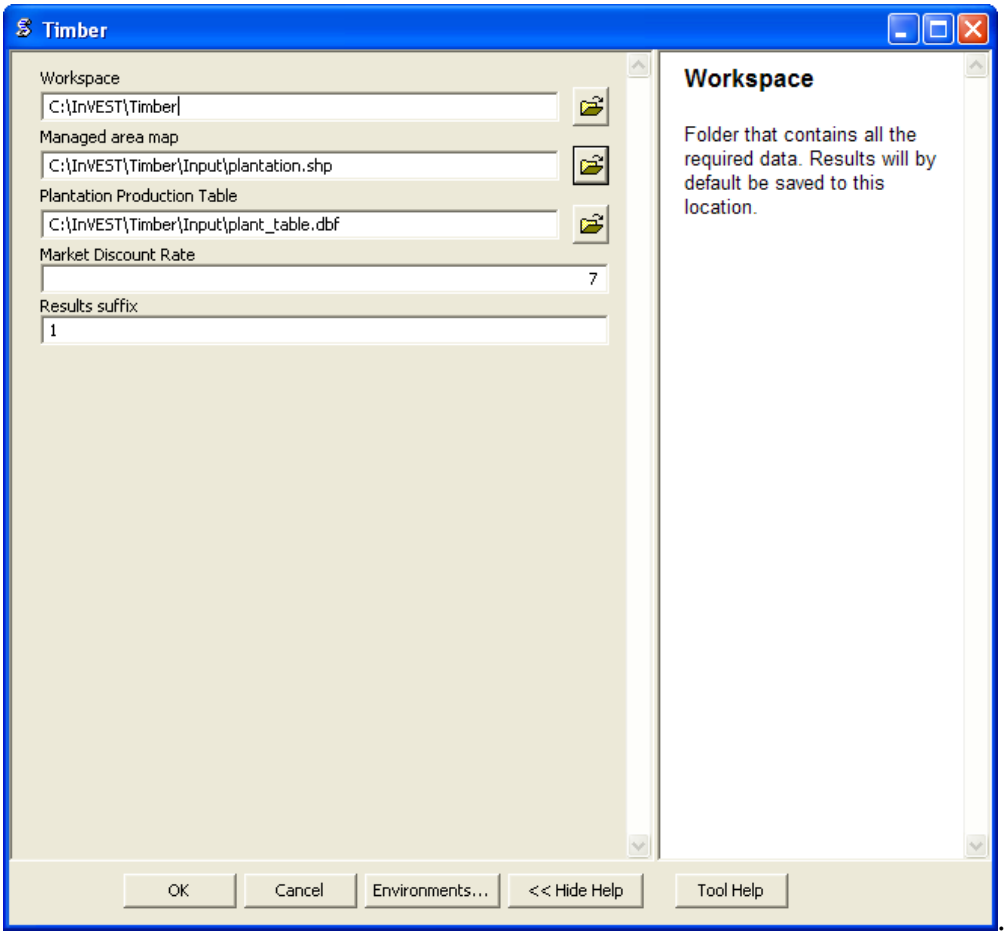
- Open an ARCMAP document to run your model.
- Find the INVEST toolbox in ARCTOOLBOX. ARCTOOLBOX is normally open in ARCMAP, but if it is not, click on the ARCTOOLBOX symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you don't see the InVEST toolbox and need instructions on how to add it.

- You can run this analysis without adding data to your map view, but usually it is recommended to view your data first and get to know them. Add the data for this analysis to your map using the ADD DATA button and look at each file to make sure it is formatted correctly. Save your ARCMAP file as needed.

- Click once on the plus sign on the left side of the INVEST toolbox to see the list of tools expand. Double-click on TIMBER.



- An interface will pop up like the one below. The tool indicates default file names, but you can use the file buttons to browse instead to your own data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. In addition, refer to the ***Data Needs*** section above for information on data formats.



- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, it requires you to enter some data.

- After you've entered all values as required, click on OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue."

- Upon successful completion of the model, you will see new folders in your workspace called "intermediate" and "output." These folders contain several raster grids. These grids are described in the next section.

- Load the output grids into ArcMap using the Add Data button.

- You can change the symbology of a layer by right-clicking on the layer name in the table of contents, selecting Properties, and then Symbology. There are many options here to change the way the file appears in the map.

- You can also view the attribute data of output files by right clicking on a layer and selecting Open Attribute Table.

Interpreting results

Parameter Log

Each time the model is run, a text file will appear in the output folder. The file will list the parameter values for that run and will be named according to the service, the date and time, and the suffix.

Final Results

Final results are found in the output folder of the workspace for this model. The model produces two main output files:

1. Timber_suffix.shp – The attribute table has three columns. The first column gives each timber parcel's TNPV. TNPV is the net present economic value of timber production in terms of the user-defined currency. TNPV includes the revenue that will be generated from selling all timber harvested from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* to *T* years after *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* less harvest and management costs incurred during this period. Finally, all monetary values are discounted back to *yr_cur* or *yr_fut*'s present value. Negative values indicate that costs (management and harvest) are greater than income (price times harvest levels). The *TBiomass* column gives the total biomass (in Mg) of harvested wood removed from each timber parcel from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* to *T* years after *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* (*TBiomass* from equation (8) or equation (9), depending on the value of *Immed_harv*). The *TVolume* column gives the total volume (m^3) of harvested wood removed from each timber parcel from *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* to *T* years after *yr_cur* or *yr_fut* (*TVolume* from equation (10)).

2. Timber_dateandtime_suffix.txt is a text file that summarizes the parameter data you chose when running the Managed Timber Production Model. The text file's name includes "*dateandtime*" which means that the data and time is stamped into the text's file name. The text file's name also includes a "*suffix*" term that you can choose in the model's interface (you can also choose to leave it blank).

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CROP POLLINATION

Summary

Seventy-five percent of globally important crops rely either in part or completely on animal pollination. The InVEST pollination model focuses on wild bees as a key animal pollinator. It uses estimates of the availability of nest sites and floral resources and bee flight ranges to derive an index of bee abundance nesting on each cell on a landscape (i.e., pollinator supply). It then uses flight range information to estimate an index of bee abundance visiting each agricultural cell. If desired, the model then calculates a simple index of the value of these bees to agricultural production, and attributes this value back to source cells. The results can be used to optimize agriculture and conservation investments. Required inputs include a current land use and land cover map, land cover attributes, species of pollinators present, and their flight ranges. The model's limitations include exclusion of non-farm habitats that may determine pollinator abundance and of the effects of land parcel size. The model also does not account for managed pollinators and pollinator persistence over time.

Introduction

Crop pollination by bees and other animals is a potentially valuable ecosystem service in many landscapes of mixed agricultural and natural habitats (Allen-Wardell *et al*. 1998, Free 1993). Pollination can increase the yield, quality, and stability of fruit and seed crops as diverse as tomato, canola, watermelon, coffee, sunflower, almond, and cacao. Indeed, Klein *et al*. (2007) found that 87 of 115 globally important crops benefit from animal pollination, a service valued variously in the billions to tens of billions per year globally (Costanza *et al*. 1997, Losey and Vaughan 2006, Nabhan and Buchmann 1997, Southwick and Southwick 1992).

Despite these numbers, it is important to realize that not all crops need animal pollination. Some crop plants are wind (e.g., staple grains such as rice, corn, wheat) or self pollinated (e.g., lentils and other beans), needing no animal pollinators to successfully produce fruits or seeds. Klein *et al*. (2007) provides a list of crops and their pollination requirements that can help identify whether crops in a region of interest may benefit from wild animal pollinators.

Decision-makers can use information on crop pollinators, their abundance across a landscape, and the pollination services they provide to crops in several ways. First, with maps of pollinator

abundance and crops that need them, land use planners could predict consequences of different policies on pollination services and income to farmers (for an example, see Priess *et al*. 2007). Second, farmers could use these maps to locate crops intelligently, given their pollination requirements and predictions of pollinator availability. Third, conservation organizations or land trusts could use the tool to optimize conservation investments that benefit both biodiversity and farmers. Finally, governments or others proposing payment schemes for ecosystem services could use the results to estimate who should pay whom, and how much.

The Model

A wide range of animals can be important pollinators (e.g., birds, bats, moths and flies), but bees are the most important group for most crops (Free 1993). As a result, the InVEST Pollination model focuses on the resource needs and flight behaviors of wild bees. Many people think of honeybees, managed in artificial hives, when they think of pollinators, but wild bees also contribute to crop pollination. In fact, for several important crops (e.g., blueberries), native species are more efficient and effective pollinators than honeybees (Cane 1997). These native bees, in addition to feral honeybees living in the wild, can benefit crops without active management of captive hives. This is the pollination service associated with habitat conservation.

For bees to persist on a landscape, they need two things: suitable places to nest, and sufficient food (provided by flowers) near their nesting sites. If provided these resources, pollinators are available to fly to nearby crops and pollinate them as they collect nectar and pollen. The model therefore uses information on the availability of nesting sites and flower resources, as well as flight ranges of bees, to map an index of bee abundance across the landscape. In a second step, the model uses this map and bee flight ranges again to predict an index of the number of pollinators likely visiting crops in each agricultural cell on the landscape. If you opt to also estimate value indices, the model then takes a third and fourth step. In the third step, it uses a simplified yield function to translate bee abundance into crop value on each agricultural cell. And in the fourth step, it attributes these cell values back to cells "supplying" these bees. These steps are laid out in more detail below, and the full model description can be found in Lonsdorf *et al.* (in press).

How it works

The model is based on a land use and land cover (LULC) map, showing both natural and managed land types. This map is divided into a regular grid of square cells, each of which is assigned a single LULC type. For each type, the model requires estimates of both nesting site availability and flower availability (e.g., for bee food: nectar and pollen). These data can be supplied from quantitative field estimates or from expert opinion, and are expressed in the form of *relative indices* (between 0 and 1). Flower availability can be supplied separately for different seasons if important, and the availability of nesting substrates can be estimated separately for multiple nesting guilds (e.g., ground nesters, cavity nesters).

Because bees are proficient flyers, they integrate over several elements of a landscape, moving between nesting habitats and foraging habitats (Ricketts *et al*. 2006). The *distances* they typically fly affect both their persistence and the level of service they deliver to farms. The model therefore

requires a typical foraging distance for each pollinator species. These data can be supplied from quantitative field estimates (e.g., Roubik and Aluja 1983), proxies such as body size (Greenleaf *et al.* 2007), or from expert opinion.

Using these data, the model first estimates the abundance index of each pollinator species in every cell in the landscape, based on the available nesting sites in that cell and the flowers (i.e., food) in surrounding cells. Flowers in nearby cells are given more weight than distant cells, according to the species' average foraging range. Since pollinator abundance is limited by both nesting and floral resources, the pollinator abundance index on cell *x*, P_x, is simply the product of foraging and nesting such that:

$$P_x = N_j \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} F_j e^{\frac{-D_{mx}}{\alpha}}}{\sum_{m=1}^{M} e^{\frac{-D_{mx}}{\alpha}}},$$

where N_j is the suitability of nesting of LULC type *j*, F_j is the relative amount floral resources produced by LULC type *j*, D_{mx} is the Euclidean distance between cells *m* and *x* and α is the expected foraging distance for the pollinator (Greenleaf *et al.* 2007).

The result is a map of the abundance index (0-1) for each species, which represents a map of "pollinator supply" (i.e., bees available to pollinate crops). In this sense, this map represents the potential sources of pollination services, but it has not yet incorporated demand. In other words, the landscape may be rich in pollinator abundance, but if there are no bee-pollinated crops on that landscape, those bees will not be providing the service of crop pollination.

To make this connection between areas of "supply" and "demand," the model calculates an abundance index of visiting bees at each agricultural cell, by again using flight ranges of pollinator species to simulate their foraging in nearby cells. Specifically, it sums pollinator supply values in cells surrounding each agricultural cell, again giving more weight to nearby cells. This sum, created separately for each pollinator species at each agricultural site, is an index of the abundance of bees visiting each farm site (i.e., "farm abundance"). We use the foraging framework described in the previous equation to determine the relative abundance of bees that travel from a single source cell *x* to forage on a crop in agricultural cell *o*:

$$P_{ox} = \frac{P_x e^{\frac{-D_{ox}}{\alpha}}}{\sum_{x=1}^{M} e^{\frac{-D_{ox}}{\alpha}}},$$

where P_x is the supply of pollinators on cell *x*, D_{ox} is distance between source cell *x* and agricultural cell *o*, and α is species' average foraging distance. The numerator of this equation represents the distance-weighted proportion of the pollinators supplied by cell *m* that forage within

cell *o* and the numerator is a scalar that normalizes this contribution by the total area within foraging distance (Winfree *et al.* 2005). The total pollinator abundance on agricultural cell *o*, P_o, is simply the sum over all *M* cells. This second map represents the relative degree of pollination service at the demand points, or points at which this service is "delivered": agricultural cells.

The actual economic benefit received from pollination depends on how crops grown in each cell respond to pollinators. The model therefore takes two additional (optional) steps to translate farm abundances of pollinators into indices of expected economic value. In lieu of a more detailed agricultural production function, we use a simple saturating crop yield function, which assumes that yield increases as pollinator visitation increases, but with diminishing returns (Greenleaf and Kremen 2006). Crops vary in their dependence on pollinators; some crop species are self-compatible and yield is less dependent on pollination while other species obligately require pollination to generate any yield (Klein *et al.* 2007). We account for both observations, and thus calculate the expected yield of a crop *c* on farm *o*, Y_o, as:

$$Y_o = 1 - \nu_c + \nu_c \frac{P_o}{P_o + \kappa_c},$$

Where ν_c represents the proportion of total crop *c*'s yield attributed only to wild pollination (e.g. ν_c would be equal to 1 if a crop is an obligately outcrossing species and equal to 0 if the crop species were wind-pollinated). In the denominator of the third term, κ_c is a half-saturation constant and represents the abundance of pollinators required to reach 50% of pollinator-dependent yield.

Once the model has calculated value for each agricultural cell, it redistributes this value back to cells that supplied the relevant pollinators, creating a map of value at the source. First, the model assigns fractions of the cell's value to each of the bee species, according to their partial contribution to total farm abundance. Then each species' value is redistributed back to the source cells from which they came using the same distance-weighted relationship described above. Thus source habitats close by provide greater service value than those farther away. Formally, we calculate pollinator service provided to *O* farms from each *m* cell, PS_m, as:

$$PS_m = \nu_c \sum_{o=1}^{O} V_o \frac{P_{ox}}{P_o},$$

where V_o represents the crop value in farm cell *o*. The result is a map of "pollinator service value" that estimates the relative index of economic value of pollinators for agricultural areas.

If the simple saturating yield function is deemed too simplistic, one may link this pollination model to InVEST's agricultural production model that includes other factors such as fertilizer, irrigation, labor, etc. The integration of these two models will give a more appropriate representation of the multiple inputs to agricultural production. It will also be possible to more specifically derive the amount of crop yield provided by wild pollinators (yield contribution) and the net present value of that additional yield. See Lonsdorf *et al.* (2009) and Lonsdorf *et al.* (in press) for equations that determine the pollinator supply, farm abundance, and pollinator service value maps.

Limitations and simplifications

The model predicts an abundance index of wild pollinators on agricultural fields (cells) within a landscape, based on the pattern of land cover types and the resources they are estimated to contain for bees. It also converts this abundance into indices of production value and attributes this value to the source cells for pollinators. Like other InVEST models, the Pollination model is extremely simple, but it makes reasonably accurate predictions when compared to field observations of pollinators (Lonsdorf *et al.* 2009). Nevertheless, with this simplicity come several limitations that must be kept in mind.

First, the model predicts only relative patterns of pollinator abundance and pollination value (using indices of 0-1). This is because absolute estimates of nest density, resource availability, and pollinator abundance are rarely available, and yield functions (including pollinator abundance) for many crops are poorly defined. However, relying on relative indices limits our ability to estimate absolute economic values to better inform land-use planning decision-making, often based on cost-benefit analyses.

This simplicity is perhaps most limiting in calculating indices of value, both on farms and at the source cells of pollinator supply. With field samples of absolute pollinator abundance, one could calibrate InVEST's relative indices to predict actual pollinator abundances. And with specific yield functions, one could use these actual abundances to estimate absolute estimates of economic value. This would require, beyond these additional data, custom modeling steps that InVEST does not offer. InVEST does produce, however, the intermediate results necessary to insert these modeling steps. Furthermore, the logic that increasing pollinator abundance and diversity lead to increased yield is supported by previous research (Greenleaf and Kremen 2006).

One option for overcoming this limitation is to link this model with an agricultural production model (InVEST or another), which will take pollinator abundance as one input to predict and map agricultural yields. In formal terms, it will use pollination as a factor in a "production function" that relates yields of a given crop to the quantity and quality of various inputs (e.g., water, soil fertility, labor, chemicals, pollination). Using these production functions, it is possible to estimate the proportion of crop productivity that is due to pollination, and thus the economic value of those pollinators.

Second, the model does not include the dynamics of bee populations over time, and therefore cannot evaluate whether these populations are sustainable given the current landscape. Instead, the model simply provides a static snapshot of the number of pollinators on each cell in the landscape, given simple estimates of nesting sites and food resources. Some of the factors that influence bee populations, like habitat disturbances and typical population fluctuations, are not captured.

Third, the model does not account for the sizes of habitat patches in estimating abundance. For many species, there is a minimum patch size, under which a patch cannot support that species over the long term. There is some evidence that small patches support fewer species of bees (Kremen *et al.* 2004), but bees can also survive in surprisingly small areas of suitable habitat (Ricketts 2004).

Fourth, pollinators are likely to be influenced by fine-scale features in the landscape, which are difficult to capture in typical land-cover data with typical resolutions of 1km or even 30m. For example, small patches of flower resources in an otherwise hostile habitat for bees can provide important food resources, but will not be detected by typical land cover maps. Some bees are also able to nest in small but suitable areas (a single suitable roadside or tree hollow). Using average values of nesting site or flower availability for each land cover type, along with 30m pixels or larger, will therefore not capture these fine scale but important areas of resources.

Finally, the model does not include managed pollinators, such as honey bees, that are managed in boxed hives and can be moved among fields to pollinate crops. InVEST focuses on the ecosystem service of pollination by bees living wild in the landscape. Managed pollinators are a technological substitute for this ecosystem service, much as a water filtration plant is a substitute for purification services by wetlands and other natural systems. Clearly, any natural resource assessment needs to consider the costs and benefits of investments in technology (filtration plants, managed bees) alongside those of investments into natural capital (wetlands, wild bee pollination).

Data needs

The model uses five forms of input data (three are required, and two are optional):

1. **Current land cover map (required)**. A GIS raster dataset, with a land use and land cover (LULC) code for each cell. The dataset should be projected in meters and the projection should be defined. This coverage must be of fine enough resolution (i.e., sufficiently small cell-size) to capture the movements of bees on a landscape. If bees fly 800 meters on average and cells are 1000 meters across, the model will not fully capture the movement of bees from their nesting sites to neighboring farms.

   Name: file can be named anything, but avoid spaces (e.g. use lulc_samp_cur)

   Format: standard GIS raster file (e.g., ESRI GRID or IMG), with a column labeled 'value' that designates the LULC class code for each cell (e.g., 1 for forest, 3 for grassland, etc.) The LULC 'value' codes must match LULC class codes used in the Land Attributes table described below. The table can have additional fields, but the only field used in this analysis is one for LULC class code.

   The model also requests three pieces of information about this LULC map, which are optional but will be prompted for in the interface.

   a. The year depicted by the LULC map (optional). You can indicate the year of the LULC map, if known, to designate model runs performed at different time periods (i.e., future scenarios).

   b. The resolution at which the model should run (optional). You can indicate a coarser resolution than that of the native LULC map to prompt the model to resample at this new resolution and to speed up run time. For example, you could run the model at a 200m resolution with a 30m resolution LULC map. If you leave this line blank, the model will perform the analysis at the same resolution of the native LULC map (i.e., the default). (Note: a resolution that is finer than the native resolution of the raster dataset cannot be defined).

c. Agricultural land cover and land use classes (optional). You can specify LULC classes that represent agricultural parcels dependent upon or that benefit from pollination by bees. Doing so will restrict the calculation of pollinator abundance to only the designated farms. Enter the LULC values in the format 2;9;13;etc. If you do not specify agricultural classes then a farm abundance map will be calculated for the entire landscape (the default). Refer to Klein *et al.* 2007 for a list of crops and their level of pollinator-dependency.

Sample data set: \Invest\base_data**lulc_samp_cur**

2. **Table of pollinator species or guilds (required)**. A table containing information on each species or guild of pollinator to be modeled. Guild refers to a group of bee species that show the same nesting behavior, whether preferring to build nests in the ground, in tree cavities, or other habitat features. If multiple species are known to be important pollinators, and if they differ in terms of flight season, nesting requirements, or flight distance, provide data on each separately. If little or no data are available, create a single 'proto-pollinator,' with data taken from average values or expert opinion about the whole pollinator community.

   Name: file can be named anything

   File Type: *.dbf, Excel worksheets (*.xls, .xlsx), or Ms Access tables (*.mdb, .accdb). If using ArcGIS 9.2x then you will need to use .xls or .mdb files. Excel 2007 (.xlsx) and Ms Access 2007 (.accdb) files will only work with ArcGIS 9.3x.

   Rows: each row is a unique species or guild of pollinator.

   Columns: columns contain data on each species or guild. Column order doesn't matter, but columns must be named as follows (italicized portions of names can be customized for meaning, but must be consistent with names in other tables):

   a. *Species*: Name of species or guild (Note: species names can be numerical codes or names. The model will produce outputs coded by the first 4 characters of each species name (e.g., Andr for Andrena nivalis), thus, each species or guild should be uniquely identifiable at 4 characters. If species or guild are not uniqueluely identifiable at 4 characters then the model will truncate the names at 3 and at a digit).

   b. NS_*nest1*, NS_*nest2*, etc.: Nesting guilds of each pollinator. Values should be entered either as 0 or 1, with 1 indicating a nesting type that is utilized and 0 indicating a non-utilized nest type. If a pollinator falls within multiple nesting guilds, then indicate 1s for all compatible nest types. Nesting types might be ground nests, tree cavities, etc.

   c. FS_*season1*, FS_*season2*, etc.: Pollinator activity by floral season (i.e., flight season). Values should be entered on a scale of 0 to 1, with 1 indicating the time of highest activity for the guild or species, and 0 indicating no activity. Intermediate proportions indicate the relative seasonal activity. Activity level by a given species over all seasons should sum to 1. Create a different column for each season. Seasons might be spring, summer, fall; wet, dry, etc.

   d. *Alpha*: average (or typical) distance each species or guild travels to forage on flowers, specified in meters. InVEST uses this estimated distance to define the neighborhood of available flowers around a given cell, and to weight the sums of floral resources and pollinator abundances on farms. You can determine

typical foraging distance of a bee species based on a simple allometric relationship with body size (see Greenleaf *et al.* 2007).

Sample data set: \Invest\pollination\input**Guild.dbf**

Example: A hypothetical study with four species. There are two main nesting types, "cavity" and "ground." Species A is exclusively a cavity nester, species B and D are exclusively ground nesters, and species C uses both nest types. There is only a single flowering season, "Allyear," in which all species are active. Typical flight distances, specified in meters (Alpha), vary widely among species.

Species	NS_cavity	NS_ground	FS_allyear	Alpha
A	1	0	1	1490
B	0	1	1	38
C	1	1	1	890
D	0	1	1	84

3. **Table of land cover attributes (required)**. A table containing data on each class in the LULC map (as described above in #1). Data needed are relative indices (0-1), not absolute numbers. Data can be summarized from field surveys, or obtained by expert assessment if field data is unavailable.

   Name: file can be named anything

   File type: *.dbf, Excel worksheets (*.xls, .xlsx), or Ms Access tables (*.mdb, .accdb). If using ArcGIS 9.2x then you will need to use .xls or .mdb files. Excel 2007 (.xlsx) and Ms Access 2007 (.accdb) files will only work with ArcGIS 9.3x.

   Rows: each row is a different LULC class.

   Columns: each column contains a different attribute of each LULC class, and must be named as follows:

   a. *LULC*: Land use and land cover class code. LULC codes match the 'values' column in the LULC raster and must be numeric, in consecutive order, and unique.

   b. *LULCname*: Descriptive name of LULC class (optional).

   c. N_*nest1*, N_*nest2*, etc.: Relative index of the availability of nesting type 1, 2, etc. within each LULC type, on a scale of 0-1 (values do not need to sum to 1 across nesting types). Set the LULC type with the greatest availability of nesting habitat at 1, and give all other land classes a value in proportion to this maximum value. The italicized parts of names must match those in NS_*nest1*, etc. in the Table of pollinator species or guilds (described in input #2 above).

   d. F_*season1*, F_*season2*, etc.: Relative abundance (0-1) of flowers in each LULC class for season 1, season 2, etc. There are two aspects to consider when estimate relative floral abundance of each LULC class: % floral abundance or % floral coverage as well as the duration of flowering during each season. For example, a land cover type that comprises 100% of a mass flowering crop that flowers the entire season with an abundance cover of 80% would be given a suitability value of 0.80. A land cover type that flowers only half of the season at 80% floral coverage would be given a floral suitability value of 0.40. Italicized parts of names must match those in FS_*nest1*, etc. in the Table of pollinator species or guild file (described in input #2 above).

Sample data set: \Invest\pollination\input**LU.dbf**

Example: The same hypothetical study with five LULC classes. Class 1 (Forest) contains the maximum availability of sites for both nesting types ("cavity" and "ground"). The five habitat types vary strongly in flower resources in the single (simplified, year-round) flowering season. Note matching column heads between this table and the Table of pollinator species or guilds.

LULC	LULCname	N_cavity	N_ground	F_allyear
1	Forest	1.0	1.0	1.0
2	Coffee	0.2	0.1	0.5
3	Pasture/grass	0.2	0.1	0.3
4	Shrub/undergrowth	0.2	0.1	0.2
5	Open/urban	0.2	0.1	0.3

4. **Half-saturation constant (optional).** The model will also prompt you to enter a half-saturation constant, which will be used when calculating the pollinator service value map. This constant converts the pollinator supply into yield and represents the abundance of pollinators required to reach 50% of pollinator-dependent yield. We suggest that the user apply the default value derived from previous work (i.e., 0.125, Lonsdorf *et al* 2009) unless there are data to justify changing it. The value must be greater than 0 and it is unlikely that the value would be greater than 0.2.

5. **Future Scenarios (optional)**. To evaluate change in pollination services under a future scenario, a Future Land Cover Map needs to be provided for that future time point (along with the year depicted). The raster dataset needs to be formatted exactly like the current Land Cover Map (data input #1). This LULC map could reflect changes in land management policy, trends in land use change (e.g., agricultural expansion, urbanization, increased habitat protection).
   Sample data set: \Invest\Base_data**lulc_samp_fut**

Running the Model

Before running the Pollination model, make sure that the InVEST toolbox has been added to your ARCMAP document, as described in the **Getting Started** chapter of this guide. You will also need two additional python libraries to run the pollination model: GDAL and Numpy. The versions that you install will depend on the Python version on your computer. Installation of these libraries may require you to have admin privileges on the computer. Below are the installation instructions. These instructions are for Windows XP and may differ for other versions of Windows or other operating systems:

1. Install Numpy. If you are running ArcGIS 9.3 with Python 2.5 then it is likely that Numpy is already installed. To confirm this, open Python command line from the Start menu and type 'import numpy' and press enter. If no error appears then Numpy is already installed. If you need to install Numpy, get the appropriate version from this

location: http://sourceforge.net/projects/numpy/files/ and run the install. Ensure the version you install matches your python version.

2. Download and install GDAL from: http://download.osgeo.org/gdal/win32/1.6/gdalwin32exe160.zip.
3. Unzip the GDAL archive into a permanent location (e.g., C:\gdalwin32-1.6).
4. Add your new GDAL bin directory (C:\gdalwin32-1.6\bin, if you installed as above) to your system Path environment variable. To do this, right click on 'My Computer,' 'Properties,' Advanced > Environment Variables. Under system variables, select 'Path' system variable, edit, add a semicolon to separate the existing values then add your GDAL bin directory. For example if the existing Path variable was "C:\Program Files\soft," after editing it should read "C:\Program Files\soft; C:\gdalwin32-1.6\bin" *Do not delete any paths that were there before.*
5. In the same Environment Variables dialog, create a new User Variable named GDAL_DATA with a value of C:\gdalwin32-1.6\data (change this to suit your GDAL install location).
6. Install the GDAL python bindings. Download the appropriate package from this location: http://pypi.python.org/pypi/GDAL/1.6.1. Browse to the bottom of that page and select a version that matches your python version.

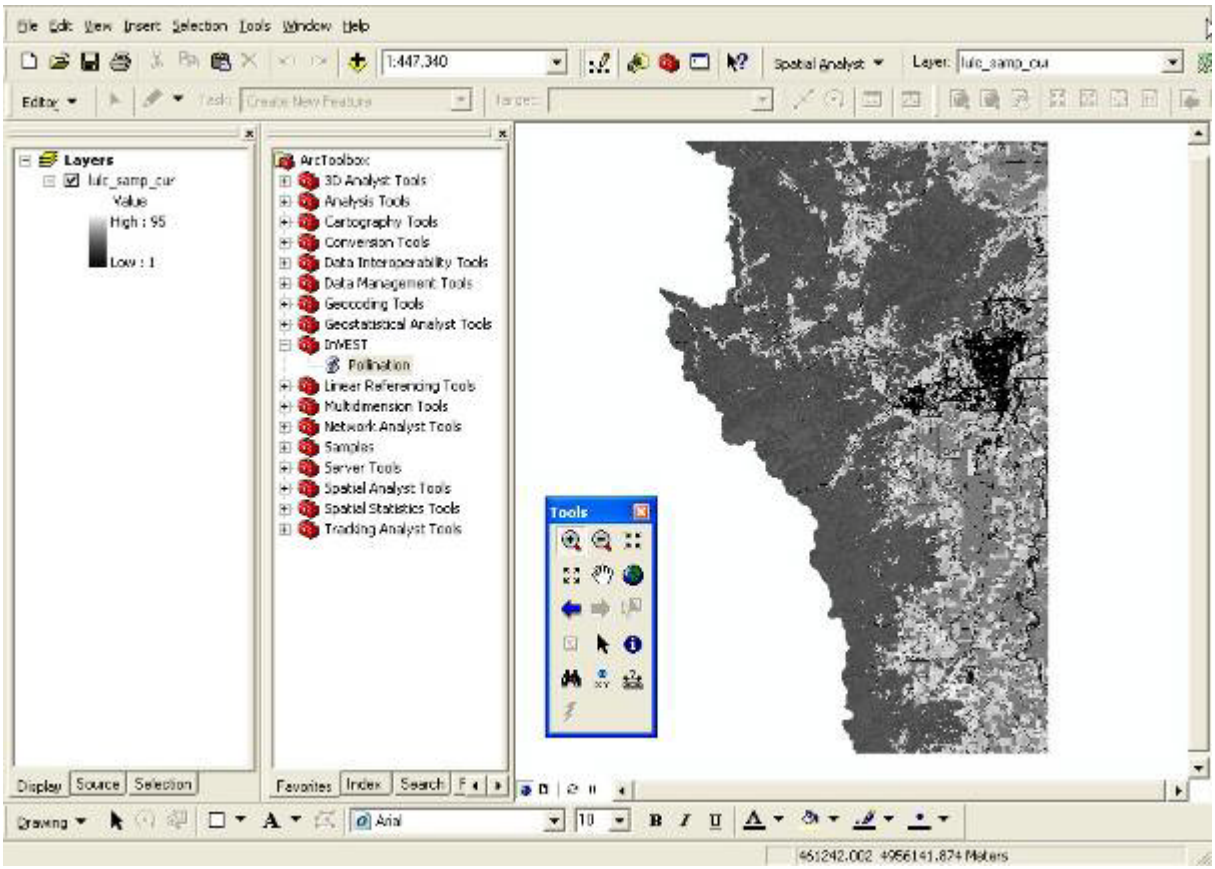
- Make sure that you have prepared the required input data files according to the specifications in *Data Needs*. Specifically, you will need a land cover raster file depicting the different land cover and land use types in the landscape, a Table of Land Cover Attributes, describing the suitability of the land cover types to nesting and floral resources, and a Table of Pollinator Species or Guilds, describing the nesting and seasonal behavior and crop visitation of different pollinators.

- Create a workspace on your computer hard-drive if you are using your data. The pathname to the workspace should not have spaces. All your output files will be dumped here. For simplicity, you could create a folder in your workspace called "input" and place all your input files here. It is not necessary to place input files in the workspace, but this will make it easier to view the data you use to run your model. If this is your first time using InVEST and you wish to use sample data, you can use the data provided in InVEST-Setup.exe. If you unzipped the InVEST files to your C-drive (as described in the **Getting Started** chapter), you should see a folder called /Invest/**pollination**. This folder should be your workspace. The input files are in a folder called /Invest/pollination/input and in /invest/base_data.

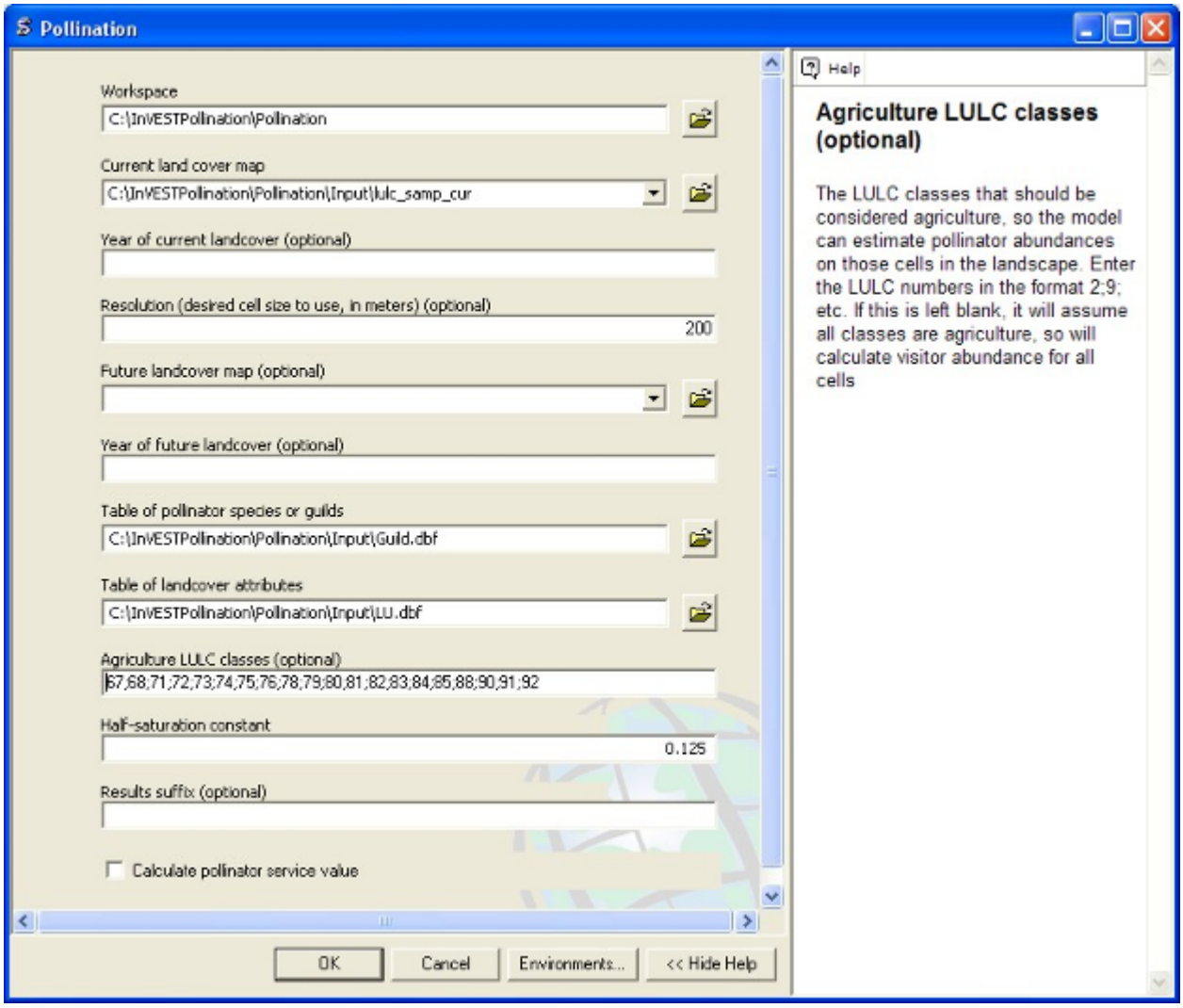
- Open an ARCMAP document to run your model.

- Locate the INVEST toolbox in ARCTOOLBOX. ARCTOOLBOX should be open in ARCMAP, but if it is not, click on the ARCTOOLBOX symbol. See the **Getting Started** chapter if you do not see the InVEST toolbox.

- Click once on the plus sign on the left side of the InVEST toolbox to see the list of tools expand. Double-click on Pollination.



- An interface will appear like the one below that indicates default file names but you can use the file buttons to browse to your data. When you place your cursor in each space, you can read a description of the data requirements in the right side of the interface. Refer to the ***Data Needs*** section for information on data formats.


Pollination
Workspace
C:\InVESTPollination\Pollination
Current land cover map
C:\InVESTPollination\Pollination\Input\lulc_samp_cur
Year of current landcover (optional)
Resolution (desired cell size to use, in meters) (optional)
200
Future landcover map (optional)
Year of future landcover (optional)
Table of pollinator species or guilds
C:\InVESTPollination\Pollination\Input\Guild.dbf
Table of landcover attributes
C:\InVESTPollination\Pollination\Input\LU.dbf
Agriculture LULC classes (optional)
67;68;71;72;73;74;75;76;78;79;80;81;82;83;84;85;88;90;91;92
Half-saturation constant
0.125
Results suffix (optional)
Calculate pollinator service value
OK
Cancel
Environments...
<< Hide Help
Help
Agriculture LULC classes (optional)
The LULC classes that should be considered agriculture, so the model can estimate pollinator abundances on those cells in the landscape. Enter the LULC numbers in the format 2;9; etc. If this is left blank, it will assume all classes are agriculture, so will calculate visitor abundance for all cells

- Fill in data file names and values for all required prompts. Unless the space is indicated as optional, inputs are required.

- After entering all required data, click OK. The script will run, and its progress will be indicated by a "Progress dialogue."

- The successful running of the model and the time it takes depends on a combination of the following factors:

    - Size of landscape: If your landscape is very large (e.g., >3 million cells) then you may experience problems. Consider either entering a larger resolution than the original resolution of the image or cropping your image to a smaller extent.
    - Resolution: The cell size chosen for the model run determines the effective number of cells that the model has to handle. Select this carefully depending on the pollinator flight distances.

- Foraging distances (Alpha): If the Alphas of the pollinators are large (>1000m) then the distance matrix becomes large, which results in a long run time or potential crashing.
- Number of pollinator species: Since the model processes each pollinator in turn, the more species you have the longer it takes to complete the run.
- Your computer: The memory and speed of your computer will determine the success and speed of your run. It is preferable to have at least 2GB memory and enough free disk space.
- On a 3GB memory computer with a 3.5 million cells and 56m resolution, 4 pollinators with alphas between 100m and 2000m the model takes up to 3 hours to run.

- Upon successful completion of the model, you will see two new folders in your workspace called "output" for final maps and "intermediate" for intermediate results. The folders should contain several raster grids, described in the next section.

- Load these grids into ARCMAP using the ADD DATA button. The next section further describes what these files mean.

- To change the symbology of a layer, right-click on the layer name in the table of contents, select PROPERTIES and then SYMBOLOGY. There are many options to change the file's appearance in the map.

- To view the attribute data of output files, right click a layer and select OPEN ATTRIBUTE TABLE.

Interpreting results

Parameter Log

Each time the model is run, a text file will appear in the output folder. This file lists the parameter values for that run and will be named according to the service, the date and time, and the suffix.

Final results

Final results are found in the "output" folder within the working directory you set up for this module.

Final results are found in the output folder within the working directory set up for this model.

- ***sup_tot_cur*:** This is a map of pollinator abundance index, summing over all bee species or guilds. It represents an index of the likely abundance of pollinator species nesting on each cell in the landscape, given the availability of nesting sites and of flower (food) resources nearby.
- ***sup_tot_fut*:** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.

- ***frm_avg_cur*:** This is a map of pollinator abundance on each agricultural cell in the landscape, based on the average of all bee species or guilds. It represents the likely average abundance of pollinators visiting each farm site.
- ***frm_avg_fut*:** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.
- ***sup_val_cur*:** This is a map of "pollinator service value": the relative value of the pollinator "supply" in each agricultural cell to crop production in the surrounding neighborhood. It is an index derived by distributing the values in *frm_val_cur* (an intermediate result) back to surrounding pollinator sources, using information on flight ranges of contributing pollinators. This is a map of where pollination services are coming from, and their (relative) values. Units are not dollars per se, but the index is a relative measure of economic value.
- ***sup_val_fut***: The same as above, but for future scenario land cover map, if provided.

Intermediate results

(found in the folder name "intermediate")

You may also want to examine the intermediate results. These files can help determine the reasons for the patterns in the final results.

- ***hn_<beename>_cur:*** This is a map of the availability of nesting sites for each pollinator. The map depends on the values you provide for the availability of each nesting type in each LULC class, and for the nesting habits of each bee species. In fact, values in this map are simply the product of those two provided numbers (e.g., in the example tables given above, species A is entirely a cavity nester, and coffee has a 0.2 value for cavity nest availability, so the value for species A in a coffee cell will be 1 x 0.2 = 0.2). (Note: the "*<beename>*" portion *of each fil*e name will be the first 4 characters of the 'Species' column in dataset #2, *s*o make sure these 4 characters identify each species or guild uniquely).
- ***hn_<beename>_fut:*** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.
- ***hf_<beename>_cur:*** This is a map of availability of flower resources for each species in the neighborhood around each cell. The value for each cell is a sum of surrounding flower values, with values from nearer cells given more weight than those from cells further away. The sum is taken over a neighborhood with the radius equal to the typical flight range of the bee (i.e., 'Alpha' in dataset #2).
- ***hf_<beename>_fut:*** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.
- ***sup_<beename>_cur*:** This is a map of the pollinator abundance index for each bee species or guild modeled. There will be a different map for each species or guild included in your analysis. This map represents the relative likely abundance of a pollinator species nesting on each cell in the landscape, given the availability of nesting sites there and of flower (food) resources nearby.
- ***sup_<beename>_fut*:** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.
- ***frm_<beename>_cur*:** This is a map of the abundance index for each bee species or guild on each agricultural cell in the landscape. There will be a different map for each species or

guild included in your analysis. If you did not specify agricultural classes, then every cell (and land cover classes) in the LULC map will contain values.

- ***frm_<beename>_fut*:** The same as above, but for the future scenario land cover map, if provided.
- ***frm_val_cur***: This is a map of "farm value": the relative value of crop production on each agricultural cell due to wild pollinators. It is based on a transformation of *frm_ave_cur*, using a simple saturating yield function to translate abundance units into value units. It represents, in terms of crop production, the contribution of wild pollinators. Units are not dollars per se, but the index is a relative measure of economic value.
- ***frm_val_fut:*** The same as above, but for future scenario land cover map, if provided.

Appendix: Data sources

List of globally important crops and their dependence on animal pollinators: (Klein *et al*. 2007).

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